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ABSTRACT

This proceedings record contains 87 presentations, including 65 complete or edited transcripts and 22 abstracts. Eighteen papers address the conference theme of creative collaboration, describing cooperative agreements between universities and school districts to provide enhanced high school curricula, college preparation courses, and opportunities for teacher education, and among several rural school districts to share resources, support personnel, and educational specialists. Fifteen papers consider problems and challenges of, and solutions to, serving disabled students in rural settings. Twelve papers are concerned with rural teachers: their importance to rural education, inservice training and professional development, and recruitment and morale. Six papers describe the latest applications of distance learning to rural education. Other topics include funding of rural education, present and future Congressional support for rural and small schools, innovative rural special education projects, student motivation, small school effectiveness, school decentralization in Norway, oral history in the curriculum of a remote Alaska school, Indian vocational education in a remote area, dropout prevention, gifted programs in rural schools, science and technology programs for rural and small schools, student peer groups in small schools, critical thinking training for K-12, and GED (General Educational Development) and adult literacy programs. The proceedings contain the conference schedule, a list of 1987 national awards for exemplary rural and small school programs, and a list of presenters. (SV)

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Proceedings of the

Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference

CREATIVE COLLABORATION

Setting the Pace in Rural and Small School Education

October 13-17, 1987 * Rosslyn Westpark Hotel * Arlington, Virginia

sponsored by

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium

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National Rural and Small Schools
Consortium (NRSSC)

1987 National Awards
for Exemplary
Rural and Small School Programs

Recognizing excellence
in rural and small school education

Presented at the
Second Annual National
Rural and Small Schools Conference
October 16th, 1987
Arlington, Virginia

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
THE SECRETARY

TO THE NATIONAL RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOLS CONSORTIUM
OCTOBER 16, 1987

I am pleased to send greetings to the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium.

No task is more important to the strength and security of our Nation today than that of providing quality education for our citizens. The educational goals to which our country should be committed are those which your organization seeks to recognize and promote.

My best wishes for continued success in your important efforts to improve education for our country's rural and small schools.

William J. Bennett

William J. Bennett

Educational Technology

Arts and Sciences Extension Teleconferencing Service (ASTS), Oklahoma State University

In response to the serious shortage of secondary school teachers, particularly in math, sciences, and foreign languages, educators—from Oklahoma State University's College of Arts and Sciences, the Oklahoma State Department of Education, and from throughout the state—created the Arts and Sciences Extension Teleconferencing Service (ASTS). The project has received financial assistance from the Oklahoma legislature and many satellite dishes contributed by the Cotton Rural Electric Services.

ASTS successfully combines educational satellite teleconferencing, computer-assisted instruction, and personal contact with approximately 2000 high school students who take German I and II, advanced placement physics, advanced placement calculus, and trigonometry at sites in Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Contact: ASTS, 206 Life Sciences East, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078-0276, 405/624-5647

Cross-Cultural Services

Community Relations Program, Los Alamos National Laboratory, New Mexico

Since 1981, over 700 employees of the Los Alamos National Laboratory have volunteered to implement the lab's Community Relations Programs which, in 1986, reached over 16,000 students in grades 4-12. The elementary level programs stimulate imagination and interest and expose students to state-of-the-art science and engineering. Volunteer panels visit intermediate schools to encourage people in grades 7 through 12 to consider careers in science. High school students are offered after-school courses, a summer program working directly under laboratory mentors, and the opportunity to visit laboratory sites and talk with working scientists.

Schools and colleges throughout the Southwest may take advantage of the laboratory's Speakers Bureau and the Equipment Loan Program, which, to date has loaned 130 items of lab equipment not currently in use.

The program has received overwhelmingly positive support from students, parents, teachers, and other community members. Laboratory volunteers are equally enthusiastic about continuing and expanding the program.

Contact: Community Relations Program, Los Alamos National Laboratory, P. O. Box 1663, MS P278, Los Alamos, NM 87545, 505/667-1230.

Preservice/Inservice Training

WIN Program, Blaine, Washington

The WIN Program is based on the philosophy that everyone associated with the schools has the potential to be a winner. The district promotes the idea that bigger is not necessarily better, and that the district's positive image should be built on accomplishment, not public relations. The program strives to enhance the self-image of students and all employees; encourage personal and professional growth and a sense of comradeship among employees; and serve as a model to and encourage participation of the local community in building self-esteem and positive human relations.

WIN Program components include: recognition for the employee of the year; WIN speaker breakfasts; teacher stipends for student excursions;

positive self-image seminars; and full tuition paid for earning the required six college credits every five years.

During the four years of WIN's operation, levies are passing with increasing margins, staff and students are less isolated, the community utilizes the school facility more fully, and the community and staff, as well as secondary students, show a high degree of satisfaction with the schools.

Contact: WIN Program, Blaine School District #503, P. O. Box S, Blaine, WA 98230, 206/332-5881.

Special Education

Low Incidence Program, Findlay, Ohio

This regional, center-based program, located in the rural community of Findlay, serves the thirteen surrounding counties. The program has 25 classes staffed by 25 teachers and 25 teachers aides. Related services are provided by an audiologist, school psychologist, speech/language pathologist, supplemental service teacher, interpreter, occupational and physical therapists, and a school nurse. Supervised by the Program Coordinator and the Director of Pupil Personnel Services, classes serve the hearing impaired, orthopedically handicapped, multihandicapped, communication disordered, and severe behaviorally handicapped. Working as a team, the program coordinator, teacher, aide, related service personnel, and parents formulate an individualized program, providing a sound, well-balanced, and ongoing program for each child served.

Outreach and inservice programs are provided in the local school districts when students return; every effort is made to ensure that the student receives an optimal mainstream educational program. In operation since 1970, this program has proven to be an example of workable regional programming. Former students have successfully completed a wide range of individually developed and managed programs geared to take them through a conventional school system.

Contact: Low Incidence Program, Findlay City Schools, 227 South West St., Findlay, OH 45840, 419/422-6121.

Family/School/Community Partnerships

Project Invite, Lewis County, Tennessee

The major goal of Lewis County's "Project Invite" is to make the schools inviting places to be. Techniques and activities for developing positive self-concepts and attitudes are being used, as well as projects designed to make the schools more aesthetically pleasing.

Because of the schools' improved image, a strengthened bond has developed between parents/community and the schools. New involvement includes active parenting classes, adult basic education classes, and a volunteer program. Results of Project Invite include significantly improved test scores, decreased drop-out rate, private funding of a Teacher Center, improved teacher morale, and more parent/community involvement than ever before.

Contact: Project Invite, 206 South Court St., Hohenwald, TN 38462, 615/796-3264.

Innovative and Creative Programs

Shared Staffing at Chiniak School, Kodiak Island, Alaska

A curious dilemma faces remote one- and two-teacher schools: providing a stable program despite complete faculty turnover every year or, if there isn't turnover, providing a well-rounded education to students who are exposed to the teaching strengths of only two adults during their entire nine years of elementary school. Since 1982, the Kodiak Island Borough School District has experimented with an answer: shared staffing. This job-sharing arrangement allows a two-teacher couple responsibility for the first semester; the other couple arrives in January to teach the second semester.

The experiment at Chiniak is a success. Now in its sixth year with no staff turnover, this program provides a stable base for long-term planning in Chiniak, yet exposes the students to four teachers rather than the two they would otherwise have. This staffing pattern successfully addresses several interrelated issues of concern to rural schools: staff stability; community involvement; professional growth; personal growth; variety of teaching talents; energy level; and job satisfaction.

Contact: Shared Staffing, Chiniak School, Box 5529, Chiniak, AK 99615, 907/486-8323.

Secondary Curriculum and Instruction

Art and Literature in Nature Program, Jackson Hole, Wyoming

The Art and Literature in Nature Program gives students the opportunity to explore their individuality and develop the ability to share and function as a group through personal interaction with the natural environment of Grand Teton National Park, For one week each February, students cross-country ski, snowshoe, identify plants and animals, do chores, do daily writing and art work in a personal journal, and share this work each evening at "open mike." A poet and an artist work with students in large groups and one-on-one. Teachers from the school district chaperone; this arrangement offers a relaxed and comfortable setting to establish and ease personal student/teacher contact.

Funded partly by a grant from the Wyoming Council on the Arts, the program has run successfully for 17 years. Each year some students wish to return, and there are always more applications than positions available. Students welcome the opportunity to grow from these physical, emotional, and mental challenges.

Contact: Art and Literature in Nature Program, Jackson Hole High School, P. O. Box 568, Jackson, WY 83001, 307/733-7475.

At-Risk Students

Student-to-Student Drug Prevention Program, Durango, Colorado

The Student-to-Student Program consists of over 100 students from Durango Senior High School who pledge themselves to be drug-free, exemplary role models for the younger children they work with throughout the school year. Members go into the elementary and junior high schools to interact with students and explain the hazards of tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs. The group also sponsors a variety of activities during the school year. Some focus on prevention—a members' retreat, training sessions, teaching refusal skills, SADD assembly, Just Say NO picnic, wellness fairs, and teen hotline. Others provide alternative social and sports functions—dances (New Year's Eve, graduation, community), dial-a-ride, banquet, volleyball tournament, alumni party, parade float, and community services.

Begun with ten high school students ten years ago by Judy Berkholz, a concerned health teacher, the program has proved to be an effective way to educate children about the harmful effects of drug use.

Contact: Student-to-Student Program, Durango Senior High School, P. O. Box 2467, Durango, CO 81302, 303/259-1630.

Elementary Curriculum and Instruction

Curriculum for Academic Success, Mt. Pleasant/Oak Grove Schools, West Virginia

The Mt. Pleasant/Oak Grove Schools provide a quality academic program for all students, a professionally rewarding experience for the staff, and enjoy a high degree of parental commitment to the educational system. The curriculum was developed as a concerted effort on the part of the school staff, students, and parents. The objectives were data driven, based on surveys from many sources and interpretation of standardized test results. Programs for artistically talented and academically advanced students are included in the curriculum.

Contact: Curriculum for Academic Success, Mt. Pleasant/Oak Grove Schools, Route 7, Box 191, Morgantown, WV 26505, 304/594-2772.

Rural Private School

Holy Cross School, Kimball, Minnesota

A small parochial school (74 students) serving rural students from three different public school districts and a wide range of socio-economic backgrounds, Holy Cross is challenged with meeting a wide variety of individual needs. In response, the kindergarten Primary Education Project was implemented to individually test each child in the areas of classification, quantification, and visual discrimination. Thus each child's strengths and weaknesses are acknowledged and addressed. Likewise, the school-wide reading program places students according to ability; mastery of concepts is required before moving to the next level, with individual or small group work prescribed in weak areas.

The Holy Cross curriculum includes Title I services for students with specific learning disabilities, speech therapy, and provides at least one computer for each classroom.

Due to limited funds, the program depends on trained volunteer help. Forty-two families are represented in the school, and there is nearly 100% parent involvement.

Contact: Holy Cross School, Route 1, Box 94, Kimball, MN 55353, 612/398-7875

NRSSC extends sincere thanks to the following for their assistance during the 1987 Exemplary Rural and Small School Programs selection process:

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Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference

CREATIVE COLLABORATION

Setting the Pace in Rural and Small School Education

October 13-17, 1987 • Rosslyn Westpark Hotel • Arlington, Virginia

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THANK YOU

The National Rural and Small Schools Consortium (NRSSC) extends sincere thanks to all of the 1987 conference cosponsors and planning committee members for their contribution of staff and other resources. NRSSC appreciates the collaborative efforts of these organizations and their commitment to rural and small school education.

A special thanks is also extended to the staff of the Rosslyn Westpark Hotel, which contributed considerable assistance in planning and organizing the conference. A final thanks is extended to the professionals who generously shared their time and expertise as presentors, speakers, and panel members.

CONFERENCE COSPONSORS

American Association of Community and Junior Colleges-
Small/Rural College Commission
American Association for Adult and Continuing Education
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
American Association of State Colleges and Universities
American Occupational Therapy Association
American School Counselor Association
American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
Center for Community Transportation--Rural America
Council for Educational Development and Research
Council of Chief State School Officers
ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools
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National Association of School Nurses
National Association of School Psychologists--
American Psychological Association-Division 16
National Association of Secondary School Principals
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National Rural Social Work Caucus
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WELCOME to the 1987 Annual Conference of the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium. We wish you a productive, enlightening, and enjoyable meeting!

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ABBREVIATIONS: MAJOR CONFERENCE TOPICS

Accred/Cert	Accreditation/Certification Issues
Admin	Administrative Issues
At Risk	At-Risk Populations
Collab.	Collaborations/Partnerships/Cooperatives
X Cult.	Cross-Cultural Services
Curric	Curriculum and Instruction
Dist Ed	Distance Education
Exemp Prog	Exemplary Programs
Fund/Res	Funding/Resources
Health/Rel	Health & Related Services (OT, PT, etc.)
Insv	Inservice Programs
Interdis	Interdisciplinary Training
Internat	International Perspective
Legis.	Legislative Issues and Policy
Life/Lrng.	Lifelong Learning
Parent/Prof	Parent/Family/Professional Relationships
Presv	Preservice Programs
Rec/Leis	Recreation and Leisure
Recruit/Ret	Personnel Recruitment and Retention
Resch	Research
Roles	Role Models/Goal Setting
Schl B Prac	School Board Practices
Schl Lead	School Leadership
Soc Econ	Socio-Economic Issues
Spec Ed	Special Education
Supp Mech	Support Mechanisms for Rural Education
Tech	Technology–Process and Product
Voc Ed.	Vocational/Technical Education

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
THE SECRETARY

TO THE NATIONAL RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOLS CONSORTIUM
OCTOBER 16, 1987

I am pleased to send greetings to the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium.

No task is more important to the strength and security of our Nation today than that of providing quality education for our citizens. The educational goals to which our country should be committed are those which your organization seeks to recognize and promote.

My best wishes for continued success in your important efforts to improve education for our country's rural and small schools.

William J. Bennett

William J. Bennett

400 MARYLAND AVE. S.W. WASHINGTON DC 20202

Tuesday, October 13

[illegible]:00 - 7:00 pm	REGISTRATION & EXHIBITS *2nd floor Promenade*
3:00 - 6:00 pm	MEETING OF CONFERENCE COSPONSORS AND NRSSC ADVISORY BOARD *Dogwood*
4:00 - 5:00 pm	PRESS BRIEFING *Dogwood*
7:00 - 8:30 pm	PLENARY SESSION **Welcome & Introduction of Cosponsors** Doris Helge **Critical Issues in Rural and Small School Education** John Merrow *Rosslyn Ballroom*
8:30 - 10:00 pm	JOB-ALIKE RECEPTION–MEET YOUR COLLEAGUES *Rosslyn Ballroom* **Deans and Directors** Betty Rose Rios **Personnel Representing Educational Partnerships** (e.g., Cooperative Extension, Business and Industry, Regional Education Labs, Volunteers, etc.) Joseph Schneider **Health Professionals and Counselors** Vicki Deal **Administrators/School Board Members** Robert Anastasi **General Educators** Sue Hovey **Special Educators** M. Winston Egan **Vocational Educators** Novella Ross **State/Regional Agencies, Intermediate Education/Service Units** Rebecca Yount **Teacher Educators** Mary Gordon

7:30 am - 5:00 pm
REGISTRATION & EXHIBITS
2nd floor Promenade

7:30 - 8:30 am
CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST
Rosslyn Ballroom

8:30 - 9:45 am
CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES
White House Rural Education Initiative
Alan Tracy
U.S. Department of Education
Rural Education Initiative
John Pucciano
Congressional Rural Caucus
Congressman Steve Gunderson
Rosslyn Ballroom

9:45 - 10:00 am
BREAK
1st & 2nd floor Promenades

10:00 - 11:00 am
CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Dealing with Rural Emotionally Disturbed/Gifted-Talented Students: When to Intervene, When to Refer, and to Whom
Charles Davis, Kay Bull
Shenandoah C *Spec Ed, At Risk, Presv*

Value-Added Articulation with Public School Systems
Robert Schleiger, Rebecca Rader, Conway Gregory
Jim Distler
Dogwood *Schl Lead, Supp Mech, Collab*

Designing Effective Rural/Small School Collaboratives
David Mack, E. Robert Stephens
Shenandoah A *Collab, Admin, Fund/Res*

Interagency Collaboration--Inservice Training and Certification of Special Education Personnel
Anne Hyde, Elizabeth Broome, Glenda Adams
Board Room *Insv, Collab, Spec Ed*

Tactics, Strategies, and Principles of Collaboration in Recent Rural School Development Schemes in the United Kingdom
Adrian Bell
Shenandoah D *Internat, Fund/Res, Legis*

10:00 - 11:00 am
(continued)

DAISEY, a Program for Preschool Children At Risk
Gail Raymond, Aileen Lau
Shenandoah B *Spec Ed, At Risk, Parent/Prof*

TI-IN to a Classroom Without Walls--Satellite Learning
Patsy Tinsley, Robert Nelson
Potomac *Tech, Dist Ed, X Cult*

Delivering University Instruction to Rural/Remote Educators via Interactive Television: A Study of Instructional Effectiveness
M. Winston Egan, Joan Sebastian
Club Room *Presv, Tech, Dist Ed*

11:05 - 12:05 pm
(continued, next page)
CONCURRENT SESSIONS

The Office of Special Education Programs' Rural Competition: A Look at Innovative Projects and Discussion of Past Performances and Future Directions
Robert Gilmore, Doris Sutherland, Doris Helge,
Pamm Mattick, Marilyn Johnson, Tom Longhurst
Shenandoah C *Fund/Res, Spec Ed, Legis*

Leadership Development Program for Improvement of Elementary Science Instruction in Rural and Small Schools
J. Preston Prather, Robert Hartshorn
Dogwood *Schl Lead, Curric, Insv*

Motivative Teaching: How To Win Kids and Influence Receptive Attitudes
Bill Peter
Shenandoah A *Curric, At Risk, Admin*

School Partnerships in Education: A Rural Consortium
Charles Ryan, Thomas Carey, Martin Monaghan
Board Room *Collab, Recruit/Ret, Curric*

School District/School of Nursing Alliance to Decrease Health Risks in a Rural Eastern Oregon Adolescent Population
Marcia Shoup, Jeanne Fitterer, Dale Wyatt
Shenandoah D *At Risk, Health/Rel, Collab*

Achieving Long-Term Benefits from Inservice Training
Glenn Latham
Shenandoah B *Insv, Admin, Schl Lead*

11:05 - 12:05 pm
(continued)

Two-Way Interactive Television Overview: An Alternative for Small and Rural Schools
Will Kitchen, Linda Lloyd
Potomac — *Tech, Curric, Dist Ed*

Young Adult Institute's "Children with Special Needs:" Using Television for Parent and Staff Training
Joel Levy, Jordana Zeger
Club Room — *Spec Ed, Tech, Parent/Prof*

12:05 - 1:25 pm

LUNCHEON
An Evolving Agricultural Economy and Its Effect on the Education of Rural Youth
Congressman Fred Grandy
Rosslyn Ballroom

1:30 - 2:45 pm

SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSIONS

Providing Effective Services to At-Risk Adolescents in Rural and Small Schools
Moderator: Joe Roberts
Panel: Susan Arisman
Nita Hollingsworth
Marcia Shoup
Dogwood

Innovative Uses of Advanced Technology in Rural and Small Schools
Moderator: Smith Holt
Panel: Beverly Osteen
Leigh Walters
Winston Egan
Club Room

Career Education Options
Moderator: David Little
Panel: Sandy Scannelli
Paul DeLargy
Dale Parnell
Shenandoah A & B

2:45 - 3:05 pm

BREAK
1st & 2nd floor Promenades

3:05 - 4:05 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Pennsylvania Teleteaching Project--A Field-Tested, Statewide Model for a Comprehensive Exemplary Cost-Effective Instructional Delivery System
Dennis Wydra, Cynthia Wydra
Shenandoah C — *Tech, Curric, Dist Ed*

Study of Instructional Environments Provided for Nonhandicapped, Learning Disabled and Behaviorally Impaired Children
Jane Close Conoley, Reece Peterson, Diana Etchison, Stephanie Lawson
Dogwood — *Resch, Spec Ed*

Student Peer Group in the Small Rural Primary School: Asset or Liability?
Alan Sigsworth
Shenandoah A — *Internat, Soc Econ, Roles*

Southeast Missouri State University/College Board: Rural and Small Schools Project for Improving Achievement in the Basic Academic Competencies
Milford Holt
Board Room — *Insv, Curric, Collab*

Developing a Teacher Incentive Structure for Rural, Impoverished, Disadvantaged or Impaired School Districts
John Richardson
Shenandoah D — *Recruit/Ret, Insv, Presv*

Elementary Programming Alternatives Committed to Excellence
Terry Feick, Ronald Thompson, Donna Myers
Shenandoah B — *At Risk, Admin, Spec Ed*

Academic Cooperatives: Creative Collaboration Utilizing Human and Technical Resources
Sandy Garrett
Club Room — *Collab, Legis, Dist Ed, Tech*

K-12 Model of Critical Thinking for Small and Rural Schools
Betty Bitner
Potomac — *Curric, Interdis, Insv*

Wednesday, October 14

4:10 - 4:40 pm CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Feasibility of Year-Round Education Programs in Rural Communities
Victoria Bernhardt, Karan Eggleston
Shenandoah C *Supp Mech, Admin, Resch*

Design for Effective Schools: A Small School's Approach
Jim Donmoyer
Shenandoah A *Schl Lead, Exemp Prog, Curric*

Voicemail: A New Communications Technology for Families in Rural Areas
George Fellendorf
Board Room *Parent/Prof, Dist Ed, Tech*

Support for Rural Teacher Recruitment From a Statewide Recruitment Center
John Norton, Patricia Graham
Shenandoah D *Recruit/Ret, Curric*

Texoma Cooperative Teacher Center: Collaboration in Education
Thomas Baker
Shenandoah B *Collab, Tech, Presv*

Project Rural Return: Phase I--Recruiting Regular Education Teachers for Special Education
Peggy Anderson, Glenn Morgan
Potomac *Presv, Spec Ed, Recruit/Ret*

AIDS: How to Better Protect Yourself--A Videotape/Manual Designed for People with Disabilities
Jordana Zeger, Joel Levy
Club Room *At Risk*

4:45 - 6:00 pm MEMBERSHIP MEETINGS
Conference participants are welcome to attend and learn more about the following organizations:

American Council on Rural Special Education
Dogwood
National Association of Elementary School Principals
Potomac
National Education Association
Club Room

Wednesday, October 14

4:45 - 6:00 pm (continued)

National Rural Education Research Consortium
Board Room
National Rural and Small Schools Consortium Technology Task Force
Shenandoah A
National Rural and Small Schools Consortium At-Risk Task Force
Shenandoah C
Regional Education Laboratories
Shenandoah D

6:00 - 7:30 pm JOURNAL OF RURAL AND SMALL SCHOOLS EDITORIAL BOARD MEETING
Suite 414

6:00 - 11:00 pm HOSPITALITY/CASH BAR

Thursday, October 15

7:30 am - 5:00 pm REGISTRATION & EXHIBITS
2nd floor Promenade

8:30 - 9:40 am PLENARY SESSION
Why Rural Education Has Not Received Its 'Fair Share' of Funding--And What To Do About It
Jonathan Sher
Rosslyn Ballroom

9:40 - 10:00 am BREAK
2nd floor Promenade

10:00 - 11:15 am (continued, next page) SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSIONS

The Foundation Connection:
Trends and Priorities
Mary Leonard
First Steps in Approaching Foundations
Rebecca Yount
Rosslyn Ballroom B

Challenges from the U.S. Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services
Patricia McGill Smith
Rosslyn Ballroom A

10:00 - 11:30 am
(continued)

Identifying Role Models for Rural and Small School Students
J. Fernando Niebla, Joyce Winterton
Dogwood

What Teachers are Doing to Improve Rural Education
National Education Association
Shenandoah A & B

11:30 - 1:00 pm

LUNCHEON
Teachers Make a Difference
Gurney Chambers
Rosslyn Ballroom

1:00 - 1:35 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS/RESOURCE AGENCIES

National Endowment for the Humanities
Carl Dolan
Shenandoah C

The Mary Reynolds Babcock Foundation
William Bondurant
Dogwood

National Community Education Association
William DeJong
Board Room

The Foundation Center
Mary Resnik
Shenandoah D

Olympics of the Mind
Briccio Barrientos
Potomac

National Center for Research in Vocational Education
Novella Ross
Shenandoah A & B

Office of Educational Research and Improvement
John Coulson, Gail Gordon
Club Room

1:40 - 2:15 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS/RESOURCE AGENCIES

Cooperative Extension
Ron Daly
Dogwood

1:40 - 2:15 pm
(continued)

ERIC/CRESS
Betty Rose Rios
Potomac

National Diffusion Network
Margaret McNeely
Club Room

Adopt-a-School Program
Robin Thurman
Board Room

U.S. Office of Adult and Vocational Education
Darry Carmine
Shenandoah C

Council on Educational Development and Research
Joe Schneider
Shenandoah D

National Council on Vocational Education
Joyce Winterton
Shenandoah A & B

2:15 - 2:35 pm

BREAK
1st & 2nd floor Promenades

2:35 - 3:50 pm
(continued, next page)

SPECIAL-INTEREST SESSIONS

How to Initiate Community-Business Partnerships in Rural and Small Schools
Moderator: William DeJong
Panel: Harvey Long
Paul DeLargy
Susan D. Otterbourg
Rosslyn Ballroom B

Serving Students with Disabilities in Rural and Small Schools: Challenges and Solutions
Moderator: Norman Howe
Panel: Peg Dawson
Wayne Fox
William Dopheide
Ann Smith
Dogwood

Thursday, October 15

2:35 - 3:50 pm (continued)

Effective Strategies for Cross-Cultural Education in Rural and Small Schools
Moderator: Bruce Ramirez
Panel: Timothy Halnon
Arturo Vargas
Blanche Glimps
Shenandoah A & B

3:50 - 4:20 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

What Makes a Difference in the Success of Professional Development in Rural Schools?
Victoria Bernhardt, Diane Means
Shenandoah C *Insv, Curric, Collab, Resch*

Intern Teacher Preparation Program in Rural Schools
Gilbert Guerin, Joseph Roberts
Dogwood *Presv, Spec Ed, Recruit/Ret*

Training Support Personnel Serving Handicapped Students in Rural America
Imogene Land, Kay Bull
Shenandoah A *Spec Ed, Insv, Admin*

Districts on the Edge: The Impact of Urban Sprawl on a Rural Community
Paul Theobald
Board Room *Soc Econ, Schl Lead*

Implementing a K-12 Gifted Program in a Rural School Division
Sarah Spruill
Shenandoah D *Spec Ed, Curric, Interdis*

Why is Norway Decentralizing Its School System?
Richard Smith
Shenandoah B *Internat, Legis*

Field-Based Teacher Training Program for Second Career Adults in Shortage Areas
Karen Nicholson, Ray Dockery, Sam Securro
Potomac *Accred/Cert, Recruit/Ret, Collab*

Global Learning and Dialectics--A Framework for Cross-Cultural Education
David Little
Club Room *X Cult*

Thursday, October 15

6:00 - 8:00 pm

CONGRESSIONAL RECEPTION
Conference participants are invited to meet with their Senators and Representatives.
Cannon Building Caucus Room

8:30 - 11:00 pm

HOSPITALITY/CASH BAR

Friday, October 16

7:30 am - 5:00 pm

REGISTRATION & EXHIBITS

8:30 - 9:45 am

Report from the Hill: Present and Future Congressional Support for Rural and Small Schools
Panel: Bob Silverstein
Beth Buehlmann
Gray Garwood
Tamera Stanton
Rosslyn Ballroom

9:45 - 10:05 am

BREAK
1st & 2nd floor Promenades

10:00 - 11:00 am

MEETING OF NRSSC EXEMPLARY AWARD WINNERS
Suite 325

10:00 - 12:00 noon

MEETING OF CONFERENCE COSPONSORS AND ADVISORY BOARD
Rosslyn Ballroom A

10:05 - 11:05 am (continued, next page)

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Legislative Planning for Early Childhood Education for the Handicapped in Rural Areas
Loreta Holder-Brown, Marion Duncan
Shenandoah C *Spec Ed, Legis, Parent/Prof*

The SIELS Project: Using Computers to Serve Young Handicapped Children and Their Families in Their Natural Environment
Paulette Mills
Dogwood *Tech, Spec Ed, Parent/Prof*

Vermont Parent/Professional Partnership Work Group: Families and Schools Do It Better Together
CANCELLED
CANCELLED
Robert DiFerdinando, Diane Sylvester
Shenandoah A *Parent/Prof, Spec Ed, Collab*

10:05 - 11:05 am
(continued)

Partnership Approach in Developing a Model for Improved Student Learning and Teacher Renewal in Small/Rural Schools
Billy Askins, Jean Schwisow, James Brooks, Samuel Martin
Board Room *Collab, Tech, Insv*

Process Versus Program: A Workable Approach to Intervention with Children At Risk
Nancy Driscoll, Marcelle Thomas, Theresa Edwards-Hayes, Tom Houlihan
Shenandoah B *At Risk, Soc Econ, Admin*

Collaborative Consultation: A Means for Problem Solving in Education
Grace Nunn, Judith Ivarie
Shenandoah D *Insv, Collab, Spec Ed*

Rare Collaboration: Urban and Rural Teachers Together in a Very Special Course
Marilyn Kay Johnson, M. Lee Wilson
Potomac *Presv, Dist Ed, Spec Ed*

Indian Vocational Education: Creative Programming in Remote Areas
Timothy Halnon
Club Room *Voc Ed, X Cult, Soc Econ*

11:10 am - 12:10 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Is There Room For HI-TECH In the Small and Rural Schoolhouse?
Lance Huffman
Shenandoah C *Tech, Supp Mech, Fund/Res*

Partnerships: Expanding School Resource Bases Through New Relationships
Martha Smith
Dogwood *Collab, Resch, Admin*

Weaving Willows Into the Curriculum: The Process of Oral History in Curriculum Development
William Pfisterer
Shenandoah A *Curric, X Cult, Exemp Prog*

11:10 am - 12:10 pm
(continued)

Inservice Training of Regular Education Teachers to Serve as Special Education Consultants
Dvenna Duncan, Ellyn Arwood
Board Room *Insv, Accred/Cert, Presv, Special Ed*

Special Education/Chemical Dependency Project
Nita Hollingsworth, Christine Bartlett, Bruce Spang
Shenandoah D *At Risk, Spec Ed, Exemp Prog*

Rural-Based Mentor/Intern Project
Michael Wolfe, Barbara McConville
CANCELLED
Shenandoah B *Accred/Cert, Collab, Insv*

Results of the Use of Total Communication in the Birth-through-Three Program to Facilitate Verbal Communication Development
Carolyn G. Critcher, Jerome H. Morton, Cynthia L. K. Marshall, Pamela D. Potocik
Potomac *Spec Ed, Tech, Resch*

Science, Mathematics, and Technology Education in Sparsely Populated Areas
Gary Allen, John Falk
Club Room *Tech, Collab, Supp Mech*

12:10 - 1:30 pm

LUNCH
on your own

1:30 - 2:30 pm

PRESENTATION OF EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARDS
(Please refer to your Exemplary Awards Brochure.)
Rosslyn Ballroom

2:30 - 2:50 pm

BREAK
1st & 2nd floor Promenades

2:50 - 3:50 pm
(continued, next page)

CONCURRENT SESSIONS: PRESENTATIONS BY EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARD WINNERS

Oklahoma State University "Arts and Sciences Extension Teleconferencing Service (ASTS)"
Ginny Pearson, Leigh Walters
Club Room

Los Alamos National Laboratory "Community Relations Program"
Abad Sandoval
Shenandoah A

Friday, October 16

2:50 - 3:50 pm
(continued)

Blaine School District "Win Program"
Gordon Dolman
Shenandoah D

Findlay City Schools "Low Incidence Programs"
Barbara McKenzie, Becky Morris, Deb Pattyn-Craun
Dogwood

Lewis County School System "Invitational Education Program"
Kenny P. Graves, Cynthia Graves
Suite 414

Chiniak School
Elaine Griffin, Chuck Tennessen, Karen Tennessen
Shenandoah C

Jackson Hole High School "Art and Literature in Nature Program"
Pamela Tarantola
Shenandoah B

Durango Senior High School "Student-to-Student Drug Prevention Program"
Judy Berkholz, Sistine Federico
Potomac

Mt. Pleasant/Oak Grove Schools
Mary Lynn Cocco, Jeannine Downs, Mary Jane Dix, Colleen Grogan
Board Room

4:00 - 5:00 pm

PRESS CONFERENCE FOR EXEMPLARY PROGRAM AWARD WINNERS
Suite 325

4:00 - 5:00 pm

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

The Rural, Small School Superintendent: The Achilles Heel of School Improvement Efforts
E. Robert Stephens
Shenandoah C *Admin, Schl Lead, Schl B Prac*

Successful State Model of Parent/Professional Partnerships in Special Education
William Capehart, Nona Flynn, Ralph Price Jr., Rebecca Hammer, Eloise Sherwood, Cynthia Harmon, Mary Pat Farrell
Dogwood *Parent/Prof, Insv, Spec Ed, Collab*

Friday, October 16

4:00 - 5:00 pm
(continued)

Model for Intervention with At-Risk Kindergarten Children CANCELLED
Sally Robinson
Shenandoah A CANCELLED *At Risk, Soc Econ, Curric*

Job Satisfaction in Rural Schools: An Imperative for the Coming Teacher Shortage
William Goetter, William Shreeve
Board Room *Recruit/Ret, Resch, Admin*

Statewide/Regional Model for Services for Students with Autism
Janice Janzen, Marilyn Kay Johnson
Shenandoah D *Spec Ed, Insv, Exemp Prog*

South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School: A Pace-Setter in Rural Education
Clark Goltz, Russell Loven
Shenandoah B *Collab, Curric, Admin*

Successful Model for Rural Special Education
Nancy Meyer
Potomac *Spec Ed, Collab, Admin*

Hands-On Science Program for Rural Elementary Schools
George Drew, Maurice Houston Field
Club Room *Curric, Presv, Collab*

5:00 - 11:00 pm

HOSPITALITY/CASH BAR

7:30 - 11:00 pm

"WASHINGTON BY NIGHT" TOUR
(meet in hotel lobby)

Saturday, October 17

8:00 - 12:00 noon

REGISTRATION & EXHIBITS
2nd floor Promenade

9:00 - 10:00 am

PLENARY SESSION
The Foxfire Experience
Eliot Wigginton
Rosslyn Ballroom

10:00 - 10:20 am

BREAK

10:20 - 11:20 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Strategies for Lifelong Learning

GED-1988: New for Teachers and Students
Ron Lemay
Shenandoah C *Life/Lrng, Curric*

Use of Oral History in Adult Literacy Programs
Donald Bear
Shenadoah C *Life/Lrng, Curric*

Drop-Out Prevention: An Ecological Approach
Jerome Tobacyk
Dogwood *At Risk, Resch, Curric*

Forty Rural Schools--Findings and Implications for Cooperative School Improvement Initiatives in Rural Tennessee
Margaret Phelps, Gene Talbert, R. K. Fletcher
Shenandoah A *Supp Mech, Admin, Resch*

"Fit by Eight:" Training Rural School Personnel and Parents in Providing a Developmental Physical Education and Recreation Program for Preschool and Elementary Children
CAN
Charles Daniel, John Vokurka, Tabitha Daniel
Board Room *Rec/Leis, Spec Ed*

Developing a Computer Literacy Course for Special Education Paraprofessionals: An Innovative Approach
Patricia Kells, Jim Wheeler
Shenandoah D *Insv, Spec Ed, Tech*

Rural Incentive: Opportunities and Obligations When Working with Rural Children
Ardeth Deay, Susan Day-Perroots
Shenandoah B *Presv, Recruit/Ret, Soc Econ*

Public-Private Partnership Designed to Meet the Real Needs of Professional Educators: Size Does Not Determine Quality
CANCELLED
Sue Palmer, Carol Haug
Potomac *Collab, Insv, Admin*

CRISP: Chestnut Ridge Independent Study Program
Nan Kennedy, Larry Giovacchini, David Popp
Club Room *Tech, Accred/Cert, Dist Ed*

11:25-11:55 am CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Appalachian Children's Intelligence Compared to a National Sample on the K-ABC
Robert Miller, Robert Clark
Shenandoah C *Supp Mech, Resch*

Proposal for a Collaborative Effort Involving Two Rural School Systems and a University to Address Problems of Teacher Recruitment and Retention
Dwight Hare, Richard Blackbourn, Bob Cage
Dogwood *Recruit/Ret, Collab*

He Who Argues Economies of Scale Should Make Certain He Does Not Have Large-Scale Conceptual Problems
David Smith
Shenandoah A *Soc Econ, Resch, Admin*

Changes in Attitudes and Perceptions of Students Participating in a Teacher Preparation Program for Rural Schools
Kay Bull, David Yellin, Michael Warner
Board Room *Presv, Curric, Spec Ed*

Collaborative Staff Development for Rural Schools: Maximizing the Outcome Variables
David May
Shenandoah D *Insv, Curric, Collab*

Utilization of Technology for the Education of Rural Students with Special Needs CANCELLED
Moon Chang
Shenandoah B *Spec Ed, Tech, Resch*

Strategic Planning for Rural Vocational Education Delivery Systems
Doug Daley
Potomac *Voc Ed, Collab, Fund/Res*

Perceptions of Teachers in Small, Isolated Alaskan Schools Regarding Supervision Received Compared to Supervision Preferred CANCELLED
Dorothea Taylor
Club Room *Admin, Resch, Supp Mech*

12:00 - 12:30 pm CLOSING SESSION/FUTURE PLANNING
Rosslyn Ballroom

ABSTRACTS AND COMPLETE PAPERS

The abstracts and complete presentation papers for all conference sessions are available for review at the Registration/Information Center. Reviewing the session papers can assist you in selecting conference presentations most suited for your areas of interest and expertise.

CONCURRENT SESSION FACILITATOR-REACTORS

Judi Elliott
James McAreavey
Jack Middendorf
Jerome Morton
James E. Potterfield
Rhea Schwartz
Sandra Silver
Sandra Stuart-Siddall
Richard L. Swanby
M. Lee Wilson

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TRANSCRIPT

Critical Issues in Rural and Small School Education

Keynote Speaker: John Merrow,
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I'm a journalist and my role normally is to ask questions, not stand up and attempt to answer the question I guess we have posed tonight. Journalists are usually described as the ones who stand high above the battle, listening to the din, the clamor, watching the smoke, the violence, and only later--after the battle has ended and the smoke has cleared, the journalists come down from the mountain to shoot the wounded. That's particularly true in this town as a matter of fact. But I have been reporting on education now for some 14 years, mostly - I guess always - in Washington.

I don't give very many speeches. There's a study of audience behavior that probably most of you educators know, about what people do during speeches. Last year in *Psychology Today*, there was a study of how people's attention spans hold and what they do during speeches. Anybody remember that? I have the figures. The typical member of an audience spends 6.3 % of his or her time actually listening to what the speaker says. Eighteen percent of the time is spent planning, evaluating. The vast majority of the typical audience member's time, 76.5% of the time, is spent in erotic fantasy. And so, every once in a while I'll ask you to pay attention to the important stuff. It really is up to you.

The question I was supposed to address tonight is not what's listed in the program, as I remember the question is, "What's wrong with education?" So I thought I would restate the question. It's too vague, and it's really the wrong question. Like the guy that was taken into the hospital, and they weren't sure what was wrong with him but he wouldn't eat. So they called in all sorts of specialists, they spent all kinds of money on tests and fancy equipment. Finally someone in his family said, "Hey, wait a minute, why don't you take a look at the food!" And sure enough they did and they found that the issue wasn't the patient, but the stuff they were trying to feed him.

I think that little parable might work as a way of re-phrasing that question. It's not what's wrong with education, it's what's going on in schools. Or if you want, what's wrong with schools? I would begin by saying the answer is not students. The answer is not teachers. They're not what's wrong. You cannot answer that question in terms that are so global as to be meaningless. Nor can you answer it trivially, as we often do. "The problem is that the principal gets on the PA too often and interrupts." We tend to say that's the problem with the school when we're inside a single school.

It seems to me that schools--small, rural, city, wherever--most schools are in danger of becoming places where nobody wants to be. Not students, not teachers, not administrators, not parents. Student absenteeism is at an all time high. Teacher absenteeism is extremely high. That's a story that is not reported very much. Why are schools becoming places where people don't want to be? Well, they're too big, they're too similar, and they are impersonal. I suspect that many of you would probably agree with part of that analysis and also are aware of a solution. Let me focus on schools, and ask the question, "How can you make schools places where people want to be?" I would say there are two answers to that. One is size, the other is choice.

What I'd like to do is show you a piece that I did for the McNeil-Lehrer News Hour about the worst school district in New York City. It's not rural. I hope you'll watch it anyway. It is quite literally the worst school district in New York. New York City has 32 school districts, and this one, some thirteen years ago, was ranked number 32, the very bottom of the heap. It's in Spanish Harlem.
(videotape)

It was number 31, now it is number 32. And the sad thing is, I know what happened. They're just doing the same old stuff. It's business as usual. Sy Phlegal explained it as well as anything, the reasons East Harlem works. Choice is essential, size is an essential part of that, capitalizing on the talents of those people in those buildings. Choice itself is a loaded word and it used to be a way of keeping schools segregated. Freedom of choice, open enrollment, local options--all those were dances around the Brown decision of 1954. And it wasn't until the Green decision in I968 that those things were declared unconstitutional.

Today, to a lot of people in the right-winged conservative movement, choice means tuition tax credits, or education vouchers, or some other scheme that is, I suspect, really designed to privatize the system, but is just not very well thought out. They are buzz words that may be losing favor.

So maybe people are saying choice within the system is possible. In a lot of choice systems that exist, race is still very much an issue, so they design magnet schools and they put them in areas where many people wouldn't want to send their kids. Now, magnet schools may work in some places wonderfully well, but in most places they are a sham magnet system or a sham choice system.

A couple of examples--let me offend both Maryland and California. California has a directory of districts of choice, and when I was looking for a school district to do this piece, I thought of California--they're really on the cutting edge. So I found their directory. I called about the directory and said, "Send me some information. Tell me about a good school system that has a lot of choices for schools." They identified one. In fact, it was the capitol. And they said, "We have 93 elementary schools and three schools of choice. I said, "What are you talking about?" They said, "We have three schools of choice here, by golly." And they go through this dance in the springtime where parents line up to get in. But they haven't started any new ones. They have two back-to-basics schools of choice and one sort of Montessori school. And that's it. They have the gall to describe themselves as a system of choice, with 90 other schools that look like each other, and they aren't even embarrassed.

Maryland, Prince George's county, right next to this district, just across the river, has three or four. Roughly, there are about two hundred places, maybe four hundred places, in their choice system. Last spring, in fact, we had some newsclip from Prince George County of the parents sleeping out overnight for three nights to get their kids in these 400 places. There were about 4,000 applicants. Now what did the schools' administrators do? They served coffee to the people waiting in line. Or they said, "Would you like to use the restroom, we're keeping the restrooms open." For this they're paid 40, 50, 60 thousand dollars a year.

What administrators should be doing is designing more schools. If you had a store, and there was a run on widgets, or whatever you sold, wouldn't you go get some more widgets? Well, if you didn't, I'd start a store. It's an outrage that the response of public school educators so often--and by the way , that's not just administrators, that's the teacher unions as well--let's take the talent that we have in schools all across this country and do what they did in Spanish Harlem, and find out who's got a dream, and figure out how to create that dream and how to hold them accountable.

But in any case, size is the other thing I wanted to talk about. Sy Phlegal said it--the school has to be small. Those kids said it, you have to be in a school where people know your name. I was in Texas not long ago doing a piece about home schooling. I wanted to see the school that the parents didn't want to send their kids to. I was curious about it, and so I went over there. Nice parents, decided to keep their kids at home and educate them at home. So I went over to the school, lovely school, beautiful building. Open classroom, but not noisy, and clearly a lot of activity. An elementary school. Twelve hundred kids, or 980, or some awful number.

So I said to the principal, "Do you know Billy Hargrove?" I said, "He was here for three years and then his parents took him out." She was a competent principal, not a desk sitter, she was out there moving around. And she said to me, "I guess I don't know him. I only get to know the good ones and the bad ones, he must have been in the middle." I would take my kid out of a school like that. I would want my children to be in a schools where the principal is going to know their name, and I think it's a reasonable witness test, like those schools in Spanish Harlem. It's a simple rule, if the principal doesn't know all the students, the school is too big, or the principal has a problem. More than likely it's the size of the school, particularly for elementary schools.

I've been reporting on education now for l4 years, and I have only been in one school that I can think of where they copy the hospital practice of grand rounds, where all the medical people get around, talk about how's so-and-so doing this week. I'm filming now in a school in Maryland where they do grand rounds. It's a middle school. Twice a week all the seventh grade teachers get together and talk about what's going on. Well, they might not talk about you every day, but his name will come up, your name will come up, her name will come up, and they'll share information. "He did very well on that composition." "You're kidding, that sounds just like a composition that so-and-so turned in." It could be that way or it could be strokes. So the next day, not only his English teacher, but also his math teacher will be able to say,"Hey, I hear you're doing very well in science." And it becomes more of a home. It becomes very therapeutic. Kids need to be successful, and it's possible when people know who those kids are.

You need schools that are small. I think you need schools where people who are in the school make decisions about what goes on. Schools of choice, where parents and kids have a right to choose which school their kids go to. You need energetic, capable leadership. I would argue that it's there in education. You don't need a house cleaning of school principals. School principals have among the toughest jobs going, and they're among the most capable people I run into. You need leadership that can create the conditions that allow teachers and principals to grow--to do what they were trained to do. You need to give them responsibility and at the same time hold them accountable. I'd like to show you what we have, instead of the leadership that creates the conditions for vitality, for real learning. The following piece is called, "The Blob." This one's about Virginia.
(videotape)

I really have a great job, I really do. I get to go around and ask nasty questions of people. The answer to that question--can the blob be stopped--is it's not going to be stopped by business as usual, a little tinkering, a little cutting here and there. It is too late to "make adjustments," tinker, and play catch-up. It really is time to leap-frog, to think about schools in a new way, or maybe in the old way. To think of schools as units competing with each other, if you want. But think of them as a unit. Measure them at the beginning and measure them at the end. Reward the ones that do well, not the ones that do badly.

I was once asked to compete for the position of superintendent of schools on Nantucket, Massachusetts, where I lived l5 years ago. I had just gotten my doctorate, and one of the school board members knew me and thought that I would make a good candidate, but would never have gotten the job. He probably would not have voted for me. But I had the time to fantasize about what I would do if I were the superintendent of schools. One of the things I decided I would say, as a policy, would be that no kid leaves the third grade until all the kids can read. And I've said that to people, and they say that's a good idea, you shouldn't leave until you can read. And I say , no that's not what I said. I said you can't leave until they can read, and they can't leave until you can read. Now maybe you couldn't do it literally, but it is a way of thinking about schooling, a way of thinking about the essentially cooperative nature of schooling. Everything we do is cooperative.

Doris began by introducing l0 people who made it possible. There was a brilliant producer, a guy named Tim Smith who produced both those videos. Superior camera work, I thought. Good sound, excellent editing. There is a cooperative nature, and the point I was trying to make is that it is essentially cooperative. There are enough studies that indicate that when sixth graders work with first graders, the sixth graders and the first graders do better. That's a heck of a lot cheaper than computer-assisted instruction, than a longer school day, than a longer school year, etc., etc. So let's not make adjustments, let's sort of think boldly about what needs to be done. Let schools be different.

Capable leaders will say to principals, (the best boss I ever had said this), "What do you want to do, and how can I help you do it? And how can I help save you when you screw up?" He didn't say it all at once like that, but that is the way he lived. And that meant that I could do things. I had to decide what I wanted to do; he helped me. We had to figure out how you'd measure whether I was doing it well, and then he also was there with some kind of failsafe when I inevitably screwed up.

That administrator in that first video, Sy Phlegal, is a brilliant man, because that's what he says. He says what kind of a school do you want to run? And you'd tell him your dream -- you want to have a junior high school built around scuba diving. Well, he would not say fine, he would ask if you ever scuba dived, and if you haven't, then the heck with it. I mean, you can't just have a dream, there's got to be some evidence that you can pull it off. So, let schools be different.

But you know what's going to happen? Some administrators will say we should have a system of choice. You run an art school. And you, you run a physical education school. And you do a computer one. Well, that's crazy. He may not want to run an art school. The point is, find out what he's good at, and what kind of dream he has. If he doesn't have a dream, find somebody who does. There's nothing wrong with having some schools that are the way schools are. There is something wrong when they're all that way. Let parents choose. Let kids choose. Be involved in their choice. Be involved in the choice.

So what if parents choose the school closest to home. So what if 50% choose that, that's fine. You know that's often cited as evidence that the voucher experiment in a city in California didn't work, because most parents chose the school nearest the home. There's another way to think of that: maybe the schools weren't interesting enough for the parents to do anything other than take the convenient answer, the convenient school. But the way that that situation was written up, it's a failure of the parents. I think that's garbage.

Recruit short-term teachers. There is nothing wrong with teaching for a couple of years, and then moving on. But the way people are induced into teacher education programs, the idea is that it is supposed to be a career. Well, the world is full of people who taught for two or three years and then went on to do something else. I had two wonderful years as a high school teacher. I would not give those up, those memories and that experience, for anything. But I wouldn't want to be a high school teacher all my life. I had two terrific years as a college teacher, and that was wonderful for me, and I think I was pretty good. There are lots of people who did that, and the supposed teacher shortage could be solved if we said, "Come on in. Do it for a couple of years, use it as a vantage point, use it as a way of paying back, and by the way-- you can do it monetarily also." Not with these phony partial lip service programs that the Reagan Administration has set up, or loan forgiveness programs, but serious ones that go to Hershey in Pennsylvania and Proctor & Gamble in Cincinnati and say, "Come on, put something back into your community." Set up ten scholarships a year - loans - and say to the people, "Every year you teach we'll forgive a year of the loan." And make it significant, not just one. Make it ten or twenty or thirty -- they have plenty of money. You don't have to have it national, just go to Proctor & Gamble in Cincinnati. Start small and let them reap all the P.R. benefits from doing it. The other thing that one should do, I would say, is close the schools that nobody chooses. They did in Spanish Harlem, they closed three schools in 13 years. Word gets out.

So what I've tried to do is not persuade you, but just remind you, to think of schools as units competing with each other to be successful. To ensure that every third grader is in the same place in the same book on the same day, which we did in my city. If we do that, then we will have far better schools -- we'll have schools we can really be proud of. Schools we have the capability of creating. Thank you very much.

QUESTIONS:

AUDIENCE: How did they kill The Blob? *(Ed Note: A MacNeil-Lehrer report on an inefficient superintendent.)*

MERROW: They did not. The superintendent retired, and they hired two more administrators that year. It became an issue, though. And The Blob [piece that you viewed earlier] has become an issue, interestingly enough. Bennett has picked it up and attacked it publicly in a lot of places, and several of the organizations (perhaps some that are represented here) did a study to prove that there is no Blob, and made a big hoopla of it.

That was a wonderful piece, because I offended just about everybody in it. It was kind of a journalist's dream, to offend just about everybody. In fact, it's accurate, I mean it was carefully researched. It could have been in almost any school. I almost did it in Denver. The piece got picked up and attacked in lots of places. The *School Administrators* magazine did a personal attack on me. I wrote Jim Lehrer and Robin McNeil about this kind of journalism, but you know, I stand by it.

But attacking it really does require a mind set change about the importance of the individual school, in my judgment. I don't know if that's happening. You may know that it's happening in some places. I'm afraid it would get gussied up in fancy terms like decentralization or something -- it doesn't require that. I suspect if you just paid the superintendent this much, and then paid all the principals this much, then the interface facilitators and all those people--put them down here. I think you'd find that the best people would say, "Well, if I can't be superintendent, I want to be a principal." If you've got the best people there -- I don't know, is that too simple? Is that too simple just to give principals more authority and more money and hold them accountable?

AUDIENCE: You mentioned something about measuring accomplishment, before and after. What did you mean?

MERROW: I think you'd want the people themselves to figure out how you're going to measure beginning and end. There's a lot of student turnover, but it seems to me that at least one component would be some hard, serious testing, so at the beginning of the year you've got a sense of where these kids are, and then test them at the end. I would not want that to be the only way you measure it, but it seems to me that could be one component of it. But not as a way of judging an individual teacher. I mean, I would fantasize that what you want to do is say we're going to have a choice system for teachers also, so that the principal and the people in the building can recruit and invite individuals, the way they did in Spanish Harlem. But then if you said okay, let's tie the pay and the money we get to how the kids do. So, not just a single test, but I think a test should be part of it.

AUDIENCE: I don't know, maybe I read it a little differently than you did, but one of the things that I noticed was what the administrator said clearly. The administrators find the best people they can and get out of their way. Hire good teachers, pay them good wages, and then administer them when they need administrating. You were very clear about the best boss that you ever had, who said find your dream, go towards it, and I'll pull your butt out of the fire if you get yourself in trouble. The lady also stated that a lot of times we move people up because of their expertise, not necessarily in the classroom, but as administrators. I'm finding in teaching for 21 years that what we end up having is a lot of people not being able to support their families, or not being able to live on the salaries that teachers make, and therefore going into administration to help support themselves and their families. Maybe it would be better if we took a look into increasing teacher's salaries commensurate with the principal or superintendent salaries, and then we'll see how many people stay in the classroom.

MERROW: Sure, that argument is often made. Tony Henley said those words, and he was, by all reports, a wonderful high school principal in Alexandria. He's a classic example of how that school was deprived of a vigorous, energetic, capable, etc., principal. And now he's a guy over there who organizes meetings of principals. Well, I really do agree with you. By the way, I don't often agree with Secretary Bennett but I think there's plenty of money in the education system now. The ratios are right there: one administrator for every ten teachers. And in Alexandria it's worse, because a lot of people who are said to be teachers have never darkened the door of a classroom.

AUDIENCE: How do school districts that have one building, a high school and an elementary, solve those problems of choice and size?

MERROW: You're saying they may not have the problems to begin with?

AUDIENCE: No, I'm saying you're looking at what you were supposed to speak to, the critical issues of rural and small school education. From your perspective, how do you see small and rural schools?

MERROW: The argument might be made that small size is a handicap in rural schools. I've heard that the reason for consolidation is to offer more programs. I would argue that's not true. Small schools work, whether they're small schools in a big system or small schools in a small system. Small systems can be just as rigid, maybe more so, as large school systems. They can be just as calcified in those patterns of moving people out of the classroom and up into administration. Even if there are just two elementary schools and high schools. Is that fair? You don't think that's a fair statement?

AUDIENCE: Take the choice issue. In my particular school system there's an elementary school and a high school. There are two kindergarten classes. Now, there's a full-day every other day. The choice: do they offer the parents a choice of picking which teacher they want? Is this how you would attack the problem in a small rural school?

MERROW: No, I don't think you could do it in that way. Why do you only have every other day? Why don't you have full day for everybody?

AUDIENCE: Money, budget, and building.

MERROW: You don't have a big enough building, or enough money? Why don't you have a big enough building? Why don't you get another building? Why don't you have enough money? Why don't you raise the taxes? How many administrators do you have?

AUDIENCE: Three.

MERROW: And that's it? Well, then I have nothing to say. You mean, all you could have, I suspect, is a system with a great deal more cooperation, with everybody learning. But, other than that, if that's the case, I have nothing to say. I can't answer your question.

AUDIENCE: You said earlier that you advocated short term teachers. How do you make that correspond to effective school research?

MERROW: Well, I quarrel with that about the effective schools research. The effective schools research that I know of talked about the principals. It doesn't say that the teacher has to have taught for a long time. It says the teacher has to be caring, knowledgeable, humane, people-oriented. It doesn't say you have to have taught for 15 years. The data show that the ones who score the best leave within 5 years. But people tend to stay in teaching. The exit rate is under 8% per year. You could have a vibrant school of, let's say, 10 teachers and have three of them be new every year. That does not contradict the effective schools research at all. In my kids' elementary school here in the district they have 26 teachers, and they have three new ones a year. I don't see anything wrong with that. I don't see anything wrong with having a couple of new teachers every year. It's probably very healthy for the system. But the point is that it also brings in people who would stay for a couple of years -- they would learn and they would contribute a whole lot of energy.

AUDIENCE: I would agree. but only if those people were all excellent people to start with. My question still goes back to the very statement of effective school teachers.

MERROW: I would argue that if you had a system that brings in people, if the recruiting pitch is that people are going to come for a couple of years, make a contribution--like the Peace Corps--that you will bring in a lot of very capable, knowledgeable, warm, etc., people, some of whom will stay. If you pay more, they'll stay longer. But if they only stay two or three years, the school itself and the kids will benefit tremendously and I don't think there's anything in the effective schools research that contradicts that in any way.

AUDIENCE: (On teacher training requirements)

MERROW: Well, I think all over this country there are people at least modifying the preparations necessary for teaching, and probably with great good sense. City University in New York last week said something about what ought to be required. No, I wouldn't argue that just anyone should just come in and teach because they're nice people. Nobody was let into the Peace Corps because they were nice people. Training was required before they were allowed to go out and do whatever it was they did. But I would quarrel very strongly with your notion that they're allowed to do that anyway. I mean, it is not simple. The pitch is not made to pull those kinds of people in and say, "Come on in and teach for a couple of years;" while they're in college to say to them, "Think about teaching, take some courses, think about teaching for a couple of years, and then move on." I think NEA and other places are missing a real opportunity just to get people like Cosby, who have been teachers, to say, "I started out teaching." Just to imprint that on people's heads, so that it's a much more socially acceptable avenue to take as you're working your way through college. I agree that more money is important, but I think we need to attract a larger pool of the very capable people who are now going off to be plastic surgeons. Thank you very much.

EDITED TRANSCRIPT

Challenges and Perspectives

Congressional Rural Caucus -
Steve Gunderson, Congressman,
3rd District, Wisconsin

White House Rural Education Initiative -
Alan Tracy, Special Assistant to the President
for Agriculture, Trade & Food

U.S. Department of Education
Rural Education Initiative -
John Pucciano, Deputy Assistant Secretary
for Vocational and Adult Education

Remarks by the Honorable Steve Gunderson
Wednesday, 14 October 1987
8:30 - 9:45 a.m.

CREATIVE COLLABORATION
Setting The Pace in Rural and Small School Education

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium

1] Introduction.

Pleasure to join you this morning. I am looking forward to sharing this segment of your program with Alan Tracy from the White House and JOHN PUCCIANO from the Department of Education who earlier this year joined me to celebrate the 75th Anniversary of a Technical College in rural western Wisconsin, the region I represent.

Personal background:

- attended a one-room school
- son of a school board member
- have served on the House Elementary/Secondary/ Vocational Education Subcommittee for the past 6 years.
- held a hearing in District - only rural perspective during the House Reauthorization process.

Educational Framework

- In this the 200th year of our Constitution, it is important to note that this document is silent on issue of education.

  Historically, Federal legislative enactments in education have been in response to national need and emergenies.

  Today, our national need turns to education to foster a competent, literate workforce and a healthy economy. This is indeed a challenge for rural communities.

- With education as the major foundation for our future, policy makers at the Federal, State and local level must carefully evaluate the vital role of education and schools in our learning society.

- Rural communities are in a unique situation because schools have the ability to serve as a one-stop learning center for young and old alike.

2] Changing Demands on Rural Education

"The problem is that our thinking, our attitudes and consequently, our decision making have not caught up with the reality of things."

- John Naisbitt [Megatrends, 1982]

- o Naisbitt brings up a very important point - we too often, in the Federal Government as well as at the school board level, perpetuate the status quo and move rigidly toward change. We must become more active rather than reactive as we move toward the year 2000. Examples:

  Title I of the Higher Education Act [Postsecondary Programs for Non-traditional Students]

  Concentration Grants - Chapter 1

- o Shifting Economic Patterns:

  - + Every segment of society, including schools, have been affected by America's economic ills during the past 10 years.

  - + Reliance of the U.S. economy on manufacturing industries is declining in favor of an information/knowledge age.

    Information revolution - rapid advances in communication/computer technology is affecting our delivery of education.

    Information technology - improves/enriches educational services that traditional institutions provide; distribute education/training into new environments - home/office - reaching handicapped/homebound persons.

  - + Our ever changing society is the challenge for our educational system.

    Unfortunately, available resources complicate the challenge. The level of resource allocation and priority/status to education does not parallel our expectations.

  - + Maintenance costs and available funding are crucial in determining information tools for our school learning environment.

3] Changing Methods of Rural Education

- o Society is transforming from a print/paper based information system to a technology based communication culture.
- o Traditional chalk/talk approach is fading in our educational system.
- o Schools/libraries must understand that their traditional captive audience is declining - succumbing to the electronic environment.
- o Schools of all sizes are being challenged by the expanding electronic environment.
- o Our "back to basics" movement in many instances fails to understand that our society is no longer basic.
- o Rapid influx of computers into society has reversed traditional teaching patterns. These new patterns promise individual, self-paced learning - to replace drill exercises/traditional learning.
- o Our high-technology society has brought learning to the crossroad to the future.

4] Changing Educational Environment in Rural America

- o Traditional Federal Education role: Access
  Equality
  Research
- o NEW Federal Education role:
  - + forecast new knowledge/skills needed.
  - + prepare students for a productive adulthood "learning how to learn"
  - + provide/offer adults education/retraining upgrading.
- o PRIORITIES FOR RURAL AREAS:
  - + Chapter 1 - Equity in fund distribution.
  - + Chapter 2 - Tool for New Classroom Technologies
  - + Literacy.
  - + Vocational Education.
  - + School/Community Cooperation.

- Chapter 1 - Equity in Fund Distribution.

  - Funds to school districts to develop/implement compensatory education programs.

  - Concentration Grants - to assist areas with high concentrations of children from low income families.

    Formula: County population is the main criteria to determine the concentrations of students from low income families.

    WORKS AGAINST STUDENTS IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS.
    BIASED TOWARD LARGE COUNTIES-URBAN CENTERS

  - Reauthorization Act: SGs request of a GAO Study of this issue. Due March 1988.

    SG Amendment: States reserve 2% of Concentration Grant funds for LEAs in counties that do not qualify for funds.

  - Nearly 5 million students participate annually. Two-thirds are students in grades 1-6.

    35% live in rural areas
    30% live in small cities
    24% live in urban areas
    11% live in surrounding communities.

    3.5 million receive reading services [72% participate]. 2.2 million receive math services.

1986 Appropriation	$3.52 billion
1987 Appropriation	$3.94 billion
1988 House Passed	$4.59 billion
1988 Senate Committee Passed	$4.47 billion

- Chapter 2 - Tool for New Classroom Technologies.

  - Funds to SEAs/LEAs to promote program improvement.

    Flexibility to enable SEAs/LEAs to determine the best utilization of the funds to meet their educational needs.

- Chapter 2 - Tool for New Classroom Technologies.

  Creative cooperative agreements between rural school districts is a wise utilization of funds for establishing and expanding instructional classroom technologies.

  Most funding helps to purchase instructional materials - computers - software - teacher training seminars.

1986 Appropriation	$506.2 million
1987 Appropriation	$529.3 million
1988 House Passed	$529.3 million
1988 Senate Committee Passed	$530.1 million

- Literacy.

  + Illiteracy in the United States - hidden economic burden/tragic personal costs.

  + 27 million functionally illiterate adults +2.3 million annually

  + 46 million marginally illiterate adults.

  + Costs to society: $224 billion annually in welfare payments/crime/lost tax revenues/ remedial education/incompetent job performance.

  + Combating illiteracy is difficult.

    - hard to identify illiterate individuals
    - hard to teach and get qualified teachers.

  + Federal Response: Even Start Act [H.R. 5]

    - trains parents who lack basic educational skills.
    - directs attention to children of illiterate parents.
    - Authorization = $50 million.

- Vocational Education.

  + Traditional role: Smith/Hughes Act of 1917 Grants to States to promote agriculture, home economics, industrial/trade education.

+ October 19, 1984 - Enactment of the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act.

  Major new thrusts: to prepare students to meet the changing employment needs of the country - specifically in the areas of advancing technology.

+ technological change, international competition, and the demographics of our nation's workforce have redulted in increases in the number of workers who are unemployed, dislocated or who require training, retraining or upgrading of skills.

+ many women entering and reentering the paid labor market are disproportionately employed in low-wage jobs and require additional training.

+ These needs can be met by vocational education programs that are responsive to the needs of individuals and the demands of our labor market.

+ Keeping in mind the changing nature of our workforce and diminishing Federal resources, there will be difficult decisions to be made regarding the priority and national need for vocational education programs. Areas such as Home Economics/Industrial Arts are dwindling as efficient functions in todays society.

1986 Appropriation	$813.1 million
1987 Appropriation	$881.9 million
1988 House Passed	$899.6 million
1988 Senate Committee Passed	$942.4 million

+ FEDERAL RESPONSE: House Trade Bill [H.R. 3]

  - "Education for Employment Demonstration Programs." Modeled after a Wisconsin law.

    Participating School Districts re-structure curriculum and programs to better prepare elementary/secondary youth for the work world incorporating such principles:

    > Practical application of academic subjects as a part of general and vocational education;

+ FEDERAL RESPONSE: House Trade Bill [H.R. 3]

  - "Education for Employment Demonstration Programs."

    > career exploration - planning and choices;

    > instruction relating to job seeking and employability skills and attitudes, and use of labor market information;

    > practical knowledge of economics and business operations;

    > school monitored work experience program, designed to equip each high school graduate with a resume as well as a diploma; and

    > vocational education programs based on labor market information.

o School/Community Cooperation.

+ We must move beyond the "traditional mentality" of utilizing school facilities for only 8 hours a day for 5 days a week for 9 months a year [180 days a year].

Schools are a gold mind of both academic and physical stimulation that should be available to the whole community, not just students, year round.

Such "openness" will promote a positive, intergenerational learning and interaction between young and old alike.

+ Rural school facilities can also accommodate the ever expanding need of child care in our communities. As more parents enter our workforce quality care and facilities are greatly valued. Open school class rooms could easily be transformed to adapt to the community needs in the area of child care.

ALAN TRACY: Our initiative in the White House really deals with rural development as a whole and the education portion of that is spread across more than just the education department John (Pucciano) is going to address a little more specifically. It might be useful for me to describe a little bit how the White House is structured. It's not, generally, too well understood, sometimes even within the White House, but it's not like other departments and one of the reasons is we don't run programs. I spent a lot time with the Department of Agriculture where it's a pretty clear pyramid and for any one issue you can find a ladder within that pyramid and go from the greatest detail and technical elements down at the staff level to pure policy with the Secretary of Agriculture and find a specific, one-line ladder of hierarchy and authority all the way through. Well, the White House is different because, among other things, we really don't want to run programs. Those programs are run in the departments and particularly, under this President, the President has chosen to give a great deal of authority to his cabinet officers and to utilize a cabinet form of government for decision making. That means the cabinet is very important as a group but the cabinet, as an assembly, really meets rather seldom. It's maybe once or twice a month. Subgroups of the cabinet meet very frequently and there are three that I think are of key importance. One is, of course, the National Security Council. The other two deal more with non-foreign policy issues and one is the Domestic Policy Council and the other is the Economic Policy Council. Each of the cabinet officers sits on one or the other of those.

My job happens to be attached to the Economic Policy Council which is chaired by Jim Baker, Secretary of Treasury, but Mr. Lyng, as the Secretary of Agriculture, sits on that council, and that is where the administration has set up its rural development task force just about a year ago now. John served on that task force, I was sort of executive secretary of it, and we were composed, primarily, of people at the assistant and undersecretary level from across the government, to take a look at issues in rural education, and rural development, in its broadest sense, and to see what we, as administration, ought to be doing about it. Of course, this stems from some of the things that you know very, very well--that we have had a substantial amount of depression in rural communities. It's been based on more than just agriculture. We've had depression in mining communities, for instance, manufacturing communities, and one of the things that we've found as we have looked into the rural communities as a whole, was that there were very substantial differences between those different segments. Some were based on agriculture, some on mining, some on manufacturing, and some others on retirement. Those were doing pretty well, by the way. All the other three happened at the same time to be having substantial difficulties.

I'm most familiar with the agricultural sectors because that's the part I've worked in. We are seeing a lot of progress right now, I think, in the agricultural sector. We've had, as I said, the most severe recession in the agriculture community that we've had since the Great Depression and that was triggered through a number of causes by our decline in exports. From 1981 we had $44 billion in ag exports down to just $26 billion last year and that decline and the declining income and declining prices, increasing stocks were behind a lot of the decline in income of the ag sector which gradually was translated throughout the entire community. A lot of that is turning around, as I mentioned. Our exports for this year are going to be up 18% by volume, 6% by value, but they're coming back. We're projecting a similar increase for next year. The net cash farm income in 1986 for agriculture was a record $52 billion and we're projecting a new record for next year. It takes awhile for those effects to work their way through the rest of the community and it doesn't mean that the stress which many of you see on the faces of your students is gone. There are individuals who are still over their heads, in particular with current low commodity prices, and are having a hard time coming out of it and many of them won't. So, the stress is not gone but as far as the sector as a whole, income is up. I think attitudes are generally a lot better, and eventually, higher net cash income will be translated through the rest of the agricultural community and we'll see substantial improvement.

The administration has done quite a number of things to try to address problems in the rural area and I don't want to spend a lot of time at it but let me just check off a few. The outlays for farm programs in FY 86 is nearly $26 billion and, of course, that's the main reason that that cash income was up. It's direct government transfer payments. Lower interest rates have helped reduce expenses, debt is down for the agricultural sector as a whole, profit margin with some livestock are up and of course the exports I mentioned are up. These will have a ripple effect over time. The President's worker readjustment act proposed $980 million program will, for the first time, include farmers in a program that will assist in counseling and retraining, relocating of displaced workers. Tax reform, of course, has provided a windfall for many states and some of them have chosen to use it for dealing with rural problems. A number of steps in the energy area help deal with those counties which are dependent upon that source of income as a basis. I didn't really mention forestry because it's counted in with agriculture, but often runs on a somewhat different cycle. In some parts of the country it's a key factor but there have been a number of steps taken in terms of trade, resolution of Canadian subsidies on hardwood, and so on. We've renegotiated the multifiber agreement with Taiwan, Korea, and Hong Kong, on more favorable terms than previously which should be of some boost to the communities that are based on the textile industry.

A number of elements in the banking area and the Economic Development Administration have redirected assistance to rural communities. The task force that was developed made recommendations to the Economic Policy Council which were adapted and among those things which the Council decided to do was to reinstitute that task force and make it a permanent working group of the Cabinet Council chaired, officially, by the Secretary of Agriculture who delegated it to the Deputy Secretary. We have a very high level response there and its purpose is to try to help coordinate federal rural development programs, and to develop further proposals for consideration by the Economic Policy Council and to examine the effects of federal programs and regulations on rural communities. Among other things, the Economic Policy Council asked all of the individual departments to each come up with their own initiative. John will be reporting on what has occurred at the Department of Education but among the steps that the ag department has taken, one that was rather key, is that the extension service which has staff throughout the rural communities of the United States is to place priority emphasis on rural education. They will be working with state officials, county officials, community leaders, colleges and universities, on individually tailored programs in local institutions.

The research agencies of USDA have all been urged to devote more of their efforts to economic development. There has been a clearinghouse established at the National Agricultural Library with an 800 telephone number, I'm sorry I didn't bring that number along, but it's available to county officials and local community officials to try to get up-to-date information about federal programs. Many times individual counties solve given problems and other counties are facing those problems without knowing that somebody not too far away has faced exactly the same problem and has found a good solution. So we're hopeful that the clearinghouse will try to put some of those people together, not that the federal government could tell local communities how best to handle their situation, but often they can put them in touch with somebody who has faced a similar problem.

I won't spend any more time on the agricultural effort, in part, because I have to catch an airplane shortly but I do want to thank you for having us here this morning. I want to congratulate Bonnie Guiton and John Pucciano for their efforts at education and assure you of the administration's great interest in rural education and its commitment to improvement in the entire rural sector. Thank you very much.

JOHN PUCCIANO: Growing up in New York City (as I did) you take lots of things for granted, like the Statue of Liberty sitting in the harbor and the Empire State Building because it was just part of the background. I suspect that the same kind of thing happens to people who grow up and spend their lives in rural communities. They tend to take for granted that which those of us who have not had that find to be so very appealing about rural America. And I think rural America has an awful lot going for it. People have talked about two room schoolhouses and small schoolhouses. Well, I think there's a lot to be said for smallness. I think there are some opportunities being created.

I spoke to a rural education group in Omaha, Nebraska several months ago and the program was sponsored by Kansas State University's Action Agenda and it was primarily rural development. But as I began doing some research for the presentation at that meeting I began to think about the things that have had impact on rural education, a positive impact on rural education. And, frankly, it hasn't come out of spending by the federal government and the Department of Education. I think it's come out of spending by the federal government for space or for defense spending, for example. The one technology that has had the most dramatic impact on the ability of rural educators to overcome size, to overcome distance, to overcome resources, is satellite communications technology. This demonstrates the ability for a teacher in a two room schoolhouse to beam in from a central location some advanced science classes and advanced math classes which are being presented by a teacher in a remote location who simply monitors the students in that classroom. That came about not by anybody spending for education but because of the commitment this nation made two decades ago for space exploration. Oftentimes, when we think about spending at the federal level, I offer that only as an example of looking beyond the obvious into what kind of spending, indeed, might have dramatic impact on the things that we're going to do.

I want to make one correction, I am not the assistant secretary. I am the Deputy Assistant Secretary for Vocational and Adult Education. Dr. Bonnie Guiton was confirmed in June and sworn in as the Assistant Secretary. She shares my commitment to rural education and to the things that we are doing. When I came to the Department and was appointed Deputy Assistant Secretary last December and then for an interim, during Bonnie's confirmation process, I was the Acting Assistant Secretary, I realized that our office has been given the awesome responsibility of coordinating all of the Department's programs in rural education and, indeed, through the Federal Interagency Committee on Education, coordinating all rural education programs across the federal government. Now, Office of Vocational and Adult Education is a relatively small office. We have about 110 people. We have no staff devoted to rural education. We have staff who have taken that on and are doing it as adjunct responsibilities to their other responsibilities. I am not sure why, when the Department of Education was established, Congress saw fit to assign the responsibility for rural education to our office. However, I quickly recognized that it provided an opportunity for the Assistant Secretary for Vocational and Adult Education a capability for coordinating the full range. We also have a group of people, from rural backgrounds who provide us with a sense of purpose and a sense of direction.

What we've had trouble doing--and I'm sure that it's not a new problem--is defining "rural." We recently tried to understand how the Federal government defined "rural." I think we have a list of about twenty-eight or thirty different definitions of the word "rural" being used in the Federal government.

The second problem we had is trying to identify what dollars were actually going to rural communities because they are not tagged for rural communities. Steve Gunderson talked about Chapter 1 and Chapter 2 programs. Our programs are all formula grant programs, as well, from vocational and adult education and they go to the states on a formula basis. None of that is identified for rural communities so one of the things that we're attempting to do right now is find out exactly what we're doing e.g., how much of the federal education dollar is indeed going to rural communities and whether there is equity as we'd like there to be. And that's part of the process that Steve talked about. The Congress is beginning to wonder that as well, whether or not there is equity.

Let me trace back again, some research for the presentation I made several months ago in Omaha, trying to get a handle on why there appears to be a greater resource problem today in rural America than there may have been thirty years ago. It isn't really a population shift. While the population has been shifting, the differences in rural population of twenty-five to thirty years ago are not that much different than they are today because there has been some in- and out-migration. I think what has probably had the most negative impact on rural America has been the proportional vote legislation, where the power base shifted from rural communities, in the states I'm talking about, to the heavy populated urban and suburban areas. That happened just about twenty-five years ago. I think you can trace some of the resource difficulties and the shifting of state dollars, state resources, from rural communities into the urban communities. And I think Steve was right, as we begin to look at what appear to be arguments they really aren't party line arguments or ideological arguments. They really are struggles between people who come out of urban backgrounds, who have an urban representation, and those who have rural representation. So, as you think about what's happening in Washington, on Capitol Hill, you really need to think about the confrontations you see in those terms--as confrontations between urban and rural legislators.

What are we doing? We have a Rural Education Committee at the Department of Education. It is composed of representatives from each of our major offices. As a matter of fact, there are several of the members of that committee in the audience this morning. We meet every two months to try to coordinate the ethics of each of the individual offices in the Department on rural education matters. We have a research subcommittee and we have a long-range planning subcommittee. They are both in the process of developing a research agenda for the research committee and a long-range plan for the rural education committee.

I think, more importantly, going beyond the Department of Education, in June of this year we successfully convinced the Federal Interagency Committee on Education to create a new subcommittee for rural education and Bonnie Guiton, who is the Assistant Secretary in our office, is chairing that subcommittee. It had its first meeting last month. It was attended by representatives from twenty-four federal agencies. There is a strong interest across the administration to do something about rural education, about rural development. You heard Alan's position, the Economic Policy Council at the White House, in a strong effort to try to coordinate ethics on rural economic development. My position with that task force, and now with a permanent working group, has been that you can't have economic development without education. They go hand in hand. Education is an absolute critical component of any economic development activities in rural America.

Steve Gunderson talked about this lifelong learning and community learning. If rural communities are going to be strong again, for those that are suffering, they are going to need to look at the resources within, be they natural resources from extractive industries, adding value to the products that are passing through their towns rather than just sending raw materials away, or be they development of other natural and human resources within the communities, those are going to require a continuous lifetime community educational process and establishment. People are going to need to constantly upgrade skills--they are going to need to relearn things. Members of rural communities need to understand entrepreneurship, economics, self ownership, the kinds of things that need to be done in order to take every advantage of the resources that rural communities have.

We fund, through set-asides for Native Americans, vocational education programs and I look at those programs that we fund as good models for economic development in rural communities because all of the tribes that we fund, but one, are rural tribes. Our programs must be geared toward the economic development of the tribe. These are the vocational education programs. In many, many instances we have seen tribes take nothing, effectively, and turn it into a positive resource. There is a tribe in Mississippi, Mississippi Shawnee, who have developed an absolute economic development miracle by strong education, vocational training of their employees, entrepreneurship education, and the development of industrial enterprises on the reservation. And that's not unusual. That's going on across the country.

I think that we need to look at different kinds of things. Just as we need to look at the not obvious results of federal spending, we also need to look at some things that we might not have thought about in the past as models for directions that we can go in. The Kansas State University folks' Interaction Agenda, which is funded under a grant by our office of Postsecondary Education, has identified and worked with a number of rural communities in doing the things I talked about before--adding values to a product that's being taken out, developing internal resources of the community for economic development. Those models exist, but all of them have one critical component and that component is education. So, my message to you is that we have a strong commitment for rural education.

Those of us who come from rural New York City understand the value that rural America does hold and the attraction that it has. I moved from New York City to Connecticut and lived in a small town of 19,000 people just outside of New Haven with a dairy farm across the street and it was kind of nice to have green trees, grass, and hear the cows in the morning. That's something that's different than the automobile noises, and the horns, and all the rest of the stuff that you get in the big city. I moved from Connecticut to Northern Virginia thinking that I was going to come into a similar environment. If any of you have read the newspapers or listened about what's going on in Northern Virgina, the development has been absolutely incredible and the traffic here is worse than the traffic in New York City and it takes me, now, an hour and fifteen minutes to get to my office from my home which is only twenty-five miles away. That's not something that is terribly pleasant. And that's not something that one typically finds in rural communities. I think what you all need to do is promote what you have. I think you need to understand that what you have is good. That we do have, through the use of technology, some options for things like consolidation. That small may not necessarily be bad, but that the key must be quality and if we can provide quality through technology, size is not all that important.

I want to talk just about vocational education for a moment because I think it also is critical to rural economic development and then I'll be happy to take any questions that you may have. It seems to me that we have an obligation to young people in this country to insure that when they leave high school they have the academic competencies necessary to embark upon a lifetime of learning because that's going to be necessary for all of us. Projections suggest that 75% of all of the jobs created over the next fiteen years are going to require some postsecondary education less than a baccalaureate. The numbers suggest that we need to have a strong foundation because we need to relearn our jobs, some of the forecasters suggest that people will need to relearn their jobs six or seven times over their career, or will need to learn new jobs five, or six, or seven times, throughout their careers. I know I wouldn't want to attempt to forecast the kinds of jobs that we ought to be training people for eight years from now--1995. I can't imagine, beyond some things that are obvious, what kinds of new jobs are likely to be available--what kind of new jobs people need to be trained for. So I think the second thing we need to instill in our young people and we have an obligation to provide them with is flexibility. That flexibility comes with the ability to learn and that ability to learn comes with their academic competencies. But then I think we also have an obligation to make sure that every young person who leaves the twelfth grade also has occupational competencies because young people ought to be able to make the choice when they graduate from high school. They like to be able to decide and have the ability to affect that decision as to whether they want to go onto higher education, whether they want to enter the work force, or whether they want to do both. And many, many people do both.

A recent study by our department indicated that more than half of the baccalaureate recipients take more than the traditional four years to receive their baccalaureate. Less than half do it in four years. Most take somewhere between five and eleven years to receive a baccalaureate. That suggests to me that most baccalaureate recipients are doing more than just going to school. Most baccalaureate recipients are also working to help finance their education and I think that we ought not to have a very specific vocational education program at the secondary level. For one thing, most of the skills we train people for at the secondary level will quickly become obsolete or, secondly, most of the equipment that we can afford at the secondary level is not state of the art so we are training people for obsolete skills already, and thirdly, most secondary instructors cannot stay on top of technology changes. So I think that we need to provide, at the secondary level, a much broader vocational education program, providing broad occupational understanding and skills--technical understanding, technical education, and then make certain that we have good postsecondary programs. Postsecondary programs don't necessarily mean institutions. Postsecondary could be self learning, postsecondary is apprenticeship and on-the-job training, it is certificate programs at proprietary institutions. It is a whole host of things which, incidentally, include two and four year institutions of higher learning. I think we need to prepare all of our young people with these broad occupational and broad academic skills so that they have the capability of exercising their free choice when they graduate from high school. That's the commercial and vocational education. We do have some time left and I would prefer to respond to some of your questions, so I thank you very much for your patience, sitting here for almost an hour now listening to the three of us is not all that easy to do, I understand that. I would be happy to answer your questions, thank you.

QUESTION #1: One question concerning reeducation. This question has to do with the protection of the psychology that takes place when a worker looks at the potential of having to retrain five or six times. We haven't gone through that experience so we don't have any hindsight as to what has happened. Do we have any projection as to what might take place with a worker's psychology when they look at "I want to advance, I need to get into a high tech skill and that's gonna possibly disappear with the new generation of high tech activity in five years, and I'll have to retrain again, and that may disappear and I have to retrain again, and that may disappear and I have to retrain again." It seems to me that this type of person may say, "Wait, I'm having to reinvest in retraining five or six times and that's lost income and it's lost time." A good number of reasonably perceptive people may care to drop out in that set of circumstances.

JOHN PUCCIANO: I'm not sure that the shifts are as dramatic as you suggest they are. We do have experience. Jobs have changed over the last ten or fifteen years and they have changed dramatically but they have changed in stages and people, through continuous education, and it's not stop, go to school, relearn, it's continuous evolution of understanding of jobs and I think it's an evolution of the jobs. And that's the way the jobs will change. Now the people who are in that position have had to evolve and learn new skills and do new things, broader kinds of things. I think that's what we're going to see. When we talk about people relearning their jobs or upgrading their skills it's going to be an evolutionary thing on an ongoing basis. I think that we see some of displacement happening now through technology. I tell you, the problem in displacement, at least in the rust belt, and I suspect as well in the agricultural communities, is not with the people who have good academic skills, they are having little difficulty relearning new things. The problem that we're really having are people who do not have strong academic skills who have a difficulty in learning some of the new technologies and part of our adult literacy initiative and the adult basic ed programs that we support, as well as whole emphasis on academic skills at the K through 12 level, is to insure that in the future we don't have that kind of problem. That people can evolve with their jobs because they've got the skills to evolve with their jobs. One of the problems with displacement is that people did not evolve and all of a sudden when push came to shove they were out of a job and did not have the learning where it was involved to upgrade those skills. We're funding some projects in Pennsylvania where we are getting examples of that and trying to figure out how to overcome that. So hopefully that will be a model.

QUESTION #2: (on monies spent for reeducation)

JOHN PUCCIANO: The estimates that I see on spending by the private sector for education and training range all the way from $40 billion at the low end, annually, to $60 billion at the high end, annually. That's a lot of money that the private sector is putting into education and training. Most of that, in all fairness, appears to be going to white collar workers who are taking additional postsecondary education. But a fair chunk of that--40%, 35%--is being used for blue collar workers for upgrading skills and a fair chunk of that is being used for remediation. Employers are finding they need to provide classes in basic skills so that they can train their employees for the technologies that are coming into the plants. Now, there is some advantage for an employer to be able to train a known quantity--a stable work force, people who understand the organization--and they are spending the money in providing both the basic skills as well as the upgraded technical skills for employees. A lot of money is being spent in the private sector and they recognize the problem.

Let me just use that point to suggest something else to all of you who are involved in education. There are some demographic changes taking place. You're all familiar with them -- the reduction in the number of young people entering the work force, the increase in those that Steve called special populations and they include women coming back into the work force, they include older Americans, people with educational disabilities, disadvantages, limited English speaking populations, a whole host of populations that are included in that very broad title. Those folks are going to become a majority of the work force by the year 2000. The business community recognizes that there are some serious problems facing it on the horizon, assuming a steady rate of growth in our economy, the business community is looking to some relatively severe labor shortages in some areas between 1995 and the year 2000. And they're concerned about how they're going to fill that. That concern is evidenced by a number of things that have happened recently. The Committee on Economic Development reports on the need for business to get involved in early education, early compensatory education. And I think the time is absolutely right for the public educational sector to reach out and develop strong partnerships with the private sector. The private sector, already spending $40 to $60 billion dollars on education and training, is looking for a way to participate in the education and training of our young people out of economic self interest. It's not altruism although some of it may be, but it is pure economic self interest because unless the American business community can insure itself that there will be a skilled, trained work force it cannot hope to maintain it's competitive position. Business, the private sector, needs to be involved in education out of economic self interest and I think there is an alternative for educators to reach and develop and explore those kinds of partnerships. Any other questions? Well, again, I thank you one more time for being patient and listening. I've enjoyed it, I hope you have.

Why rural education has not received its 'fair share' of funding--and what to do about it

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Introduction

The first question I would like to address is why rural schools don't get their fair share of education funding. It seems unnecessary to document the fact that rural education has been poorly funded and treated unfairly in the distribution of our nation's public resources. You all are only too aware of this fact when you prepare your budgets.

Maybe the easiest way of describing the problem is to say that if it's true that money is the root of all evil, then rural education is well on the road to sainthood! We need fear no evil, if money is the root of all evil.

I would like to offer you the easiest answer to the funding question first, then share with you all the other reasons why we don't get a fair share, and finally make some suggestions about what to do about it.

The easy answer is that rural schools, rural people, rural communities, are the victims of discrimination. Saying that helps us, as rural educators, feel like people who have been wronged and that carries a certain moral superiority with it. It's almost noble to be victims of terrible discrimination by local governments and tight-fisted taxpayers, by state legislatures and state departments of education, and by the federal government. And, there is a real element of truth here: rural schools have been discriminated against.

It certainly is true that along with racism and sexism there is another "ism" we need to worry about: "placism." Placism is discrimination based upon where people happen to live. Such discrimination, even when inadvertent, has had very negative effects on rural communities and on rural schools. But I think it's too easy to say that the whole reason why rural schools don't get their fair share is that there's some kind of conspiracy--as evidenced by this pervasive discrimination--against rural schools and rural people. I'd like to suggest to you that, along with discrimination, there are nine other reasons--equally important reasons in my mind--as to why rural schools don't get their fair share.

Rural education is not a priority

The second most important reason rural schools don't get their fair share is because schools, in general, and rural schools, in particular, simply are not a national priority. There is far more rhetoric than resources heaped upon education by the federal government. Remember that nationwide, the federal government contributes less than 10% of the money used to pay for our nation's schools. The federal government may declare that mediocre education is the reason we're a "nation at risk"--but that same government has "risked" little of its resources to overcome mediocrity. Education is not where the money goes when the United States Congress makes decisions about what's most important. That fact is so obvious that we sometimes forget it. But, rural education is not going to garner a greater share of the federal budget until we're willing to address the larger budget issues.

I saw a calculation once that the military will spend more money in one day than the federal government will spend on the education of rural children all year; the Pentagon will spend more money in one day than the U.S. Department of Education will spend on rural children all year. That says something unfortunate about our national priorities. To cite another example, the U.S. Department of Education created a $4 million fund to sponsor rural education research, but hold that applause, because this rural money represents far less than the federal government will spend this week safeguarding foreign ships in the Persian Gulf.

There is something fundamentally wrong with this set of national priorities. But that's how it is working. Until we're willing, as individuals and as a group, to publicly and forcefully criticize such incorrect national priorities and demand that those priorities be rearranged, education as a whole, will not get its fair share. Consequently, rural education cannot expect a big slice of an already much too small pie.

Rural realities

Another reason why rural schools don't get their fair share has to do with the realities of rural life. One of the most important rural realities is the continuing tragedy of rural poverty. To the extent that we rely on local taxes and local property wealth to sustain our schools, most rural schools will always lag behind financially. Never has that become more apparent than in areas hit hard by the most recent farm crisis. There simply is not enough local property wealth (and disposable income) to make sure that rural kids have the resources that they need to reach their full potential. A system that allows the education of rural children to essentially depend on where they happen to live, and how wealthy their neighbors happen to be, is not a system that reflects a sense of fairness. There is something not right when a child who is "clever enough" to have been born in Scarsdale, New York, is virtually guaranteed to have a far better, and more lavishly-financed, education than a child born the same hour of the same day in Alligator, Mississippi. There is something not right about that, nor about the extent to which rural schools must suffer because rural communities, in general, are burdened by a legacy of poverty.

One idea worth remembering in this context is the idea of playing "catch-up." I've noticed in recent years that if you look at the state and federal allocation formulae, you can no longer argue that rural schools are being denied their fair share of this year's allocation. That's a change from ten years ago, but increasingly (particularly at the state level) rural schools are getting what could be construed as a fair share of the available dollars.

The problem is that such a perspective is completely ahistorical. It perpetuates the lie that school systems and their students are all starting from the same place. It also perpetuates the lie that if you give everyone an equal amount now, they're all going to progress in a fairly equal way throughout their schooling. What this neglects is the legacy of poverty in rural communities. Everybody getting "the same" is fair only if everybody started off at the same place. That's not the situation in rural education. So, getting a "fair" amount now actually is not fair at all. Getting "too much" money into rural schools would be closer to really being fair because it would allow some of the requisite catching up to occur.

Equality and fairness

Another reason rural schools and rural children don't get their fair share is because of some pretty simplistic notions of what "equality" and "fairness" are all about. For example, funding formulae allocated on a per capita basis are inherently unfair and discriminatory against rural communities.

Imagine there is a per capita allocation from the legislature through which every student is going to get $10.00 for program "X." In a city with 100,000 students enrolled, that means the school system is going to receive $1 million to implement its program. Even in today's economy, $1 million is a significant sum of money with which to operate an educational program. Think, however, of the rural school system with only 100 kids enrolled. They're only going to get $1,000--a sum too small to hire anyone or to effectively implement program X. What you can do with $1 million and what you can do with $1,000 are strikingly different. The per capita funding bias in federal and state funding formulae means that rural school systems rarely even get the "critical mass" of funding necessary to take effective action. Getting $1,000 toward an instructural computer system doesn't mean anything. Getting $1,000 toward hiring a resource teacher doesn't mean anything. Yet, our policymakers blithely act upon the simplistic notion that if we're spending $10 per pupil everywhere, we have achieved absolute fairness.

We also see this problem when we look at rural special education and at other areas where kids have special needs requiring greater amount of dollars than might otherwise need to be spent. In such cases, giving equal dollars is not fairness; it is, in fact, the antithesis of fairness.

Overburdened and understaffed

The fifth reason rural schools have not gotten their fair share of money is that rural administrators and rural teachers have been overburdened and rural school systems have been understaffed. This is particularly relevant in relation to non-formula competitive funding--whether from the state, the federal government or private foundations. It is the unusual rural district in which administrators and teachers are not so wrapped up in the day-to-day business of education that no one has time to research, write, submit and lobby for the kinds of extensive proposals often required.

Most metropolitan school systems have a staff of "development" people whose job it is to find special funding and to bring it home. It is the extraordinary rural school system that can afford to have even a portion of one person's time devoted to discovering special grant programs and preparing competitive applications. It is a classic example of the cliches that "it takes money to make money," "thems that got shall get," and "the rich get richer."

The price is too high

All of the previous reasons have a common characteristic: they are somebody else's fault. There is one more reason in this group. Put simply, the price of money has often been too high for rural schools to want to claim their fair share. There are often "strings attached" to outside money that are so inappropriate and so onerous that is better for rural schools not to take the money, than to take the money given the stipulations under which it's offered. Nowhere is that clearer than in the case of capital improvements. There is a long-standing nasty little secret across much of rural America: the price of getting a new building, the price of getting an upgraded facility, the price of making sure that students in rural areas have a physical environment people could be proud of, has often been to close the local school and to consolidate. If you're willing to consolidate and build a big school then, magically, there is money available in most states to help you. If what you want to do is renovate an existing small school, or add to it, or make other kinds of major capital improvements, the external money seems to vanish.

The companion "pact with the devil" is that if rural schools don't complain and don't demand too much, then the state won't come in, close down their schools and shut down their districts. That's not fair. It's not fair to hold rural students ransom in such a political struggle for the control of education. However, it has happened over and over and over again. Consequently, rural educators often don't tap every possible funding source because it has taught them that the price of some money--what has to be paid in return--is far too high.

There is a story I heard recently that sums up this whole problem. A farmer driving his truck, with a cow in the back, got sideswiped. The cow flew off the back of the truck in one direction and the farmer flew out of the truck in the other direction. Since the farmer knew the other driver was at fault, and since he was injured, he sued for damages. In the courtroom the defense attorney demanded of the farmer "Isn't it true you told the state trooper investigation this accident that you were just fine? The farmer said, "Well, there's an explanation... And the attorney said, "I don't want to hear your explanations, just answer the question: Isn't it true, farmer, that you said you were just fine?" And he said, "Well, yes, that's true, but Judge, may I please explain?" Well, the judge took pity on him and gave him permission.

So, the farmer described the scene. The cow went one way, he went the other way. When the trooper arrived on the scene, he saw the cow was injured, took out his pistol, put a bullet through its head and killed it on the spot. Then the trooper came over to the farmer--pistol is still drawn--and said "I just can't bear to see anything suffer...how are you?" To which the farmer replied, "I'm just fine!"

It seems to me that rural schools often have been caught in a similar position: with a governmental gun to their head, forced to say that they're "just fine," because if they said anything different, the price they would pay is just too high.

We don't demand our fair share

Still, it's too easy to shift the blame entirely onto other people. It's too easy to imagine a conspiracy of other people doing damage to rural interests, whether inadvertently or malevolently.

We must finally acknowledge that part of the reason why rural schools don't get their fair share of funding can be found within us and within our rural colleagues all around the country. We're also responsible for this problem. One of the biggest reasons we don't receive our fair share of funding is that we have never, ever demanded our fair share. Not once. Never. In fact, in keeping with our upbringing, in keeping with what our mommas taught us was the polite, nice way to act in this world, we don't demand anything. Unfortunately, because we don't demand it, we don't get it. The simple political truth is that we ask too little, we're perfectly willing to accept too little, and we sell out too cheaply.

I've been to a fair number of rural conferences over the years and almost without exception a state commissioner (or a legislator, or somebody from the U.S. Department of Education) will be there. These "leaders"--who do control significant resources--will say some reassuring words about rural education, will flatter us, and perhaps even throw some tidbit in our direction. For example, they'll tell us they've appointed a task force to review the current situation or that they're going to allocate 1/100 of 1% of their budget to some special rural program. Instead of being offended at being thrown a tidbit, instead of demanding our fair share, what do we actually do? We roll over. We're delighted. We give them standing ovations simply because they were willing to even speak with us. Their performance is shameful--and so is our own.

Our job as advocates for rural children and as advocates for rural schools is not to be awestruck by the people who have power and money. Our job is to bring home the bacon. Our job is to deliver the goods to our constituency, to our rural communities and our rural children. We have done a poor, poor job of bringing home the bacon. One reason is that we've always been willing to swoon at any kind of attention we get from state or federal policy makers, and to be delighted with any concessions we might receive.

When "bigshots" are in the same room, we seem to forget that we represent two thirds of all school systems in the United States; we represent one third of all students in the United States; and we represent more than one third of all the teachers in the United States. We don't ever behave like those things are true. We act like a nickel and dime constituency and then we're stunned that all we get are nickels and dimes!

Politicians and other "leaders" have one central role: the allocation of scarce resources among competing interests. They distribute scarce resources among competing interests, but we don't compete. We refuse to compete. We seem to expect that out of the goodness of their hearts, and out of an overwhelming empathy with our needs, that they'll simply hand us the resources we want.

That's not how it works. We can no longer afford to sit back and expect that the resources we want will magically float down to us (like manna from Heaven). We can no longer afford to give politicians and policymakers the message that we're so insecure, so self-effacing and such wimpy advocates for rural children that throwing us tidbits is good enough for the likes of us. If we demand next to nothing, next to nothing is precisely what we'll continue to get.

Lack of good ideas

One of the other reasons why we don't get our fair share of funding is that there is a remarkable paucity of good ideas in rural education. When most rural school systems have gotten their act together enough to ask for something, what they ask for is terribly limited, not just in a dollar sense, but also limited in terms of its educational vision. We rarely make a compelling case.

I've had the unfortunate distinction of sitting on too many panels at the state level, at the federal level, or at foundations. I've reviewed proposals submitted by those few rural school systems having enough gumption to submit a proposal at all. Sadly, the overwhelming majority of them are lame. They're not good proposals. They're not based on solid research or creative, good ideas. There is an appalling lack of vision about what rural education could be and a disconcerting tendency for rural systems to say that what we really want is "more of the same." Just give us more of the same and we'll be happy. This is not a compelling political argument. Until we start clamoring for resources that will creatively address our fundamental problems, there is not going to be much money flowing in our direction.

An absence of effective organizing

The final two reasons why we don't receive our fair share are related. The first is that the rural "community" has been notoriously poor at organizing around any issue other than agricultural subsidies. There is a hopeful lesson here. The amazing power of America's farmers--at least the larger farmers--to organize and to get billions upon billions of dollars in agricultural subsidies tells me that there is not some genetic defect in all rural people that renders them incapable of organizing together in order to advance their common interests.

However, the farmer's lesson has been lost on rural educators. We don't bother to organize around our own common interests. We cherish our rivalries with other local districts, and our isolation from other rural interest groups. We labor under the delusion that a rural district in southern Indiana has little in common with a rural district in southern Illinois. We seem to have the attitude that the rural education realities in Alaska and Mississippi and Vermont aren't worth organizing around, because there is no common ground among them. It's rubbish. All we're doing is shooting ourselves in the foot--or, more precisely, we're shooting ourselves in the wallet! Our unwillingness and inability to organize the rural education constituency is a continuing shame. It also is killing us politically. The blame rests squarely on our own shoulders for not taking the initiative and the responsibility for organizing ourselves.

Avoiding our allies

The final reason "why" is an extension of the previous point. Not only have we been unorganized ourselves, but we also have scrupulously avoided joining forces with other groups who could serve as our allies. We have not bothered to identify who our political allies might be, nor tried to unite with them in any coherent, comprehensive, consistent way.

There are two principal groups of potential allies we could approach: first, the organized rural interests from Farm Bureau to the Rural Coalition; and second, the myriad of education lobbies from the teachers organizations through the National School Boards Association. Yet, we have not united in any serious way with either of these two.

By choosing to go it alone, we have paid the price. Worse, the children we're supposed to help and the communities we're supposed to represent have had to pay the price of our unwillingness to figure our who our political allies are, to join forces with them, and to demand our fair share.

What to do about it: The three "V"s

We haven't been very clever about figuring out how to get a fair share of the nation's money into our rural schools. However, this need not be the permanent state of affairs. There are lots of things you can do at the local level, at the state level, and at the national level to remedy this situation. The first, and most direct, strategy is to think about each of the reasons why we don't get our fair share of funding--and then figure out what the antidote to each one of those might be. If per capita funding is a problem, then we need to work toward a funding formula based upon need or one that provides a minimum level of resources no matter how small a school or district might be. If the problem is that we have allowed politicians to get away with throwing us crumbs, then the answer is not to allow that, to demand more and keep the heat on until we've received reasonable concessions in response to those demands.

What it boils down to, however, are the three "V's." The first "V" we need is vision. More than anything else, rural education lacks vision--a vision of its own worth, a vision of its own contributions, a vision of its own goals, a vision of its own potential to foster educational excellence and finally, a vision of its role as a partner in rural community development.

What rural education needs is not simply more dollars. What we need are better ideas about how to spend whatever resources we have. We need more good ideas and a clearer vision of what a set of uniquely rural paths to education excellence might look like.

Life is full of contradictions and here is one of them: while it is true that rural education proposals often are far from impressive, it also is true that a few of the very best ideas in American education have their roots, and their fullest development, in rural communities. Rural schools thus live with the contradiction of implementing, side-by-side, some of the worst ideas you can imagine, and some of the best.

Foxfire is an idea that rural education ought to be proud of. It's a program that American education as a whole ought to be proud of. We ought not be proud of how little it's been replicated. Still, in terms of an idea that makes sense for rural communities and rural schools, in terms of a vision of what rural education should be, Foxfire brilliantly illuminates one path to rural education excellence.

There is no one path that's right for every individual or for every rural school. There are multiple rural realities, and therefore, there need to be multiple rural paths to educational excellence. Foxfire represents one such path.

For several years, Paul DeLargy and I have been working on the idea of rural school-based enterprises. This program attempts to link rural education and rural economic development through student entrepreneurship. We help rural schools become small business incubators. We encourage the combination of classroom work in entrepreneurship and small business management with hands-on experience actually running honest-to-goodness business (not live projects, simulations, or pretend businesses). These school-based enterprises represent another uniquely rural path to educational excellence.

We need to develop more rural visions of educational excellence and then promote their effective dissemination. Interestingly, many of the "innovative" educational ideas around the country are ideas having their roots in rural communities. It was with great amusement that I visited several so-called "lighthouse schools" in metropolitan areas and discovered why they were being hailed as such progressive institutions. They were being hailed for practices like cross-age grouping, individualized instruction, using the community as a learning resource, and mainstreaming mildly handicapped children. I said to myself, "These are great ideas, but haven't I seen them implemented somewhere before?" Another contradiction in this world is the extent to which the same ideas and programs are applauded when they're done in metropolitan districts, but denounced as old-fashioned and archaic when they're done in rural communities.

We have a foundation of good ideas upon which to build a cohesive rural vision. We certainly can do better than remaining as miniature replicas of metropolitan schools. These new visions of education in which rurality is the foundation of the curriculum (rather than ignored in the curriculum) can usher in a brighter, more productive era in our history. The vision is vital, but the vision is not enough.

The second "V" is to create a rural voice. We've neglected to discover or create that rural voice. The National Rural and Small Schools Consortium has made a good attempt to organize rural educators and to help them find their voices. The Consortium is the most positive step in the direction of creating a national rural network and of developing that rural voice than anything else that's happened in modern history. This is a legitimate attempt to organize the national rural education constituency--that sleeping giant--and it is an effort worth applauding and supporting actively.

Nevertheless, it is a long, long way from where we are to the point at which any of us can rest upon our laurels in the area of creating an organized rural voice. It's great that a couple of hundred people are willing to show up in Washington for this conference. But, let us not forget that we represent a potential constituency of millions--that's right, millions of people. Do you think I'm exaggerating? Think of all the rural teachers, administrators and other school employees. Add all the rural school board members, then add all the rural parents and finally add all the rural students themselves. There it is--our multi-million potential constituency.

Having a couple hundred participants here today is great. It's better than in the past, a real sign of progress. But, it's only barely scratching the surface of the constituency that's out there waiting to be organized, waiting to be tapped, waiting to come together around a compelling rural vision and waiting to unite with each other (and with us) to create a powerful rural voice. Having found our own voice, we then could lift it up in harmony with the voices of our potential political allies in rural communities and in the education world. If we learn to overcome our self-imposed public "laryngitis," our voice could ring out across this nation, calling for an end to "placism" and demanding a fair share for our rural children.

The third "V"--victories--will be touched only in passing here. We need victories in rural education and we need success stories. Every new vision of rural educational excellence represents a victory. Every such vision that is made real because of a strong rural voice is a major victory.

We need to stop hiding the victories we've already won. There are lots of rural victories that have been won in individual classrooms, in entire schools and across school systems through rural America. We need to keep winning these victories and we need to keep sharing the good news about these victories in order to bolster our own morale. Our knowledge of, and experience with, educational victories will give us the momentum we need to sustain our rural vision and our rural voice.

Victories, like defeats, become self-perpetuating. They can generate a momentum that can carry the whole movement forward. However, this momentum depends upon our ability to generate victories for our rural schools, and our willingness to share the news--and the fruits of these victories with rural educators across the nation.

I'd like to close with a story about a man named Jacob. He had lead a pious life, a good life. One day he was praying, "Lord, here I am, a 79-year old man. I've done everything you wanted me to do. I've fed the hungry, I've housed the homeless, I've helped the poor, I've lead as good a life as I could lead. Now I have a request. I'd like to win the lottery."

A week passes, but Jacob doesn't win the lottery. So, he prays again, "Lord, maybe you misunderstood last week. I don't want this money for myself. I'm old and I'm not going to live long. But, because I've been doing your work all of these years, I haven't put aside any money to take care of my wife and my children and my grandchildren. I'm really concerned about their welfare once I'm gone. I've been in your service all these years, now I'm just asking for one thing--please let me win the lottery."

Another week passes. Jacob doesn't win the lottery. He's becoming a little upset now. He prays once more, "Lord, please listen to me. In all my 79 years, I've never asked for anything for myself. But, now I am asking. Somebody's got to win the lottery, why not me? What would it hurt if I should win the lottery?" There, all of a sudden, a deep and powerful voice descends from Heaven saying, "Jacob, meet me halfway. Buy a ticket!"

Those of us concerned about rural children and rural schools receiving their "fair share" ought to heed--and take heart from--the story of Jacob. If we go halfway and if we buy our ticket, we will receive our reward. For us, "going halfway" means developing a sound and compelling vision of the paths to rural educational excellence. Our "ticket" is that strong, unified rural voice we have the potential to develop. With these strengths behind us, we can win the victory over anti-rural prejudice, over societal ignorance of (and indifference to) our special needs, over our own timidity and short-sightedness, and over the numbing inertia preventing us from seeing--and from seizing--the opportunities before us to make America's rural schools great.

EDITED TRANSCRIPT

Teachers Make a Difference

Keynote Speaker: Gurney Chambers,
Dean of Education & Psychology,
Western Carolina University

In the final analysis everyone in this room understands, I'm sure, that rural and small schools are no better than the teachers who staff those schools. So I would like to talk for the next 30 or 40 minutes about the kind of teacher that we ought to try to attract to our rural and small schools. I want to talk about that kind of teacher by telling you a story. I want to tell you a story, a true story, a story that everyone in this room could tell, I'm sure. The time, the place, the circumstances, the characters involved in your story would be different from the story of the person who is sitting next to you. But the plot would be essentially the same.

Many years ago in late summer, I got on an old flat top school bus in a rural, remote section of Wilkes County in North Carolina. I got on that bus to ride about fifteen miles to enroll in the first grade at Wilkesboro Elementary School. That was a very frightening experience for me. My stomach was churning, my heart was pounding. I had hardly, during the first six years of my life, been into town. Wilkesboro at that time was hardly more than a village but to me it seemed overwhelming. About an hour later, I recall getting off of that bus and walking into Wilkesboro Elementary School, which in retrospect was not a particularly impressive building. In fact, it was ordinary. But thank goodness, for me and many other children like me, the building was filled with extra-ordinary teachers.

I walked all the way to the end of the hall over the wooden floors that they poured oil on to keep the dust down. It was a gloomy place, I recall, because the walls were painted a dark brown up five or six feet so that the little handprints wouldn't show. There, waiting for me outside her door was one of the most wonderful human beings who ever lived--Ms. Zola Barber. And the story I want to tell you is about this wonderful human being, Ms. Barber. Now I could tell you about my second grade teacher. I could tell you about Ms. Phillips who got married and broke my heart. I couldn't tell you about my fourth grade teacher, Ms. Parker, because she was not a good teacher and I remember her just as vividly today as I remember Ms. Barber. But I still have love for Ms. Barber. I do not have love for Ms. Parker. But I was fortunate in all of my elementary schooling; all of my teachers were outstanding with the exception of that fourth grade teacher. I'm telling you about Ms. Barber, though, because she is the furthest removed from the present day. I want to impress upon you just how powerful a teacher is in the lives of kids, her students. We never know where the influence of a great teacher is.

Now, when I showed up at that classroom, I had many deficiencies. I had on my bib overalls, I had my ten-cent haircut, I had rust behind my ears, my teeth were far apart, I murdered the English language, and my self-esteem was terrible. But by accident, I was going to be in the room of a powerful force. In order to impress upon you just how powerful we as educators can be, I'm going to reveal some rather private things about my background. In a different context, these things would be totally irrelevant. It would be a waste of your time, and I think, perhaps, my revealing them would even be in poor taste. But I'm an educator, and you're that, and you know that as teachers, as educators, we'll do almost anything to make a point. So I am revealing these things again to impress upon you how powerful great teachers are in the lives of their students.

I was born into and reared for the first fourteen years of my life in abject poverty in that rural, remote area of Wilkes County. There were six stair-stepped children. My mother had an eighth grade education with no marketable skills. My father had a second grade education. In this three room house in which we lived there was no indoor plumbing and no electricity. There was a fireplace to heat the entire house. The roof leaked. I can recall setting dishpans in various places throughout the house when it rained to catch the water. There were no floor coverings. I can recall looking through the cracks in the floor and seeing the chickens run under the house. We slept on straw ticks. We had bed bugs around from time to time.

My father died an alcoholic at age 29, leaving my mother--age 27--a widow who reared those six stair-stepped children. We were, indeed, economically deprived. We were socially deprived. We were intellectually deprived. We didn't even have a rural mailbox. And certainly my mother, with no marketable skills, was too busy trying to eke out a living for those six children to read us a bedtime story at night and tuck us in. We were nutritionally deprived. Not in the sense that we went hungry, but I'm sure that we ate too much fatback and too much sowmeal gravy and things that weren't that good for us at the time.

This background was well known to my teachers. We had diseases that were rather common in those days. We had the itch more than once. We had head lice and we had worms. Those worms were big worms, I can assure you. And if the truth were known, probably those things spread to other children in the school systems where you now work.

When I went to school, I had a very low estimate of myself, and as I said, I murdered the English language. But despite all of those deficiencies--and there were other children with deficiencies that equaled mine, and they exist today--I presented myself to that teacher and said, "Here I am, learn me if you can." And in a very real sense, that teacher represented my last real hope if I were going to make it in society. That school represented my last real hope. Thank God, there were those kinds of teachers, not just in the first grade, but in the second and the third, and the fifth and the sixth and right on through my school, to help compensate for those deficiencies I took to school. If Ms. Barber, if Mr. Tugman, if coach Young could help me become a productive, constructive member of society, then anyone can be helped to become a constructive, productive member of society.

Let me tell you about what this wonderful human being was like. She was about that tall, she had white hair, and she was old. That's a thing about all first grade teachers--they're old. But you can see them five years from now, twenty years from now, thirty years from now, and they'll look exactly the way they did the first time that you saw them. They'll probably have the same hairstyle, and with all probability, they'll be wearing the same dress. And there's a certain smell about first grade teachers. It's a nurturing smell. Occasionally I'll run into that smell and it makes me feel more secure. She did not have any advanced degrees--they do not make a teacher. She wasn't really known outside of her own immediate community. But this teacher, during the course of her career, did more for more people that most people do with a national or international reputation.

I can remember her ushering me in to that room, that first day, showing me where my seat was. I want to tell you how she behaved in the classroom. She understood, probably without ever having read what Emerson said,--"that which we are, we are all the while teaching." Not voluntarily, but involuntarily. Everything that you are as a person, goes into that classroom with you. It is important that you have the right kinds of characteristics, and one of the most important is that you genuinely like children. She understood, I'm sure, what Russell meant when he said that there is nothing more unequal than to treat unequals, equally. This morning Jonathan Sher drew a distinction between equality and equity. There is nothing more unequal than to treat unequals, equally.

When I showed up in that classroom-- given my background, given the deficiencies that I brought with me--she knew that she had to treat me differently than the way she treated Bing Sommers, a middle class student whose mother was a teacher and father an insurance salesman. He had a middle class home, and came to school speaking the language adequately, and smelled good, and dressed good, and had the values that are rewarded in that school. Ms. Barber, if she was anything, was empathetic. She had that uncanny ability to get inside the skins of her students and to see things from our points of view. To feel our joys, to feel our disappointments, and feel the pain that we were experiencing.

I could relate a number of anecdotes that would illustrate this, but I'm just going to, because of time, give you one. One day we were in our reading groups--we had the bluebird, redbird, and yellowbird reading groups back then--and it was several months into the school year, and despite my many deficiencies I wasn't in the poorest reading group and I wasn't in the best. I was in the middle group, thanks to Ms. Barker's good teaching, she had brought me along that far. She was asking each of us to read a sentence or two from the reader, and it was my turn, and I read a statement and didn't get it just right. She asked me to repeat it, but I still didn't get it the way it was supposed to be done. And she asked me with all the gentleness in the world to do it again. And being a child of such poor self-esteem, I started crying.

Now Ms. Barber knew exactly why I was crying. My feelings had been hurt because she asked me to repeat the sentence. But this wonderful, sensitive, perceptive, empathetic human being gave me a way to save face with my peers. She knew that if the other children knew why I was crying that they would make fun of me. So she said, "What's the matter, Gurney. Does your stomach hurt?" Being reasonably intelligent, I seized this opportunity to save face and I said, "Yes." Now you may have been sitting there thinking that I was going to relate something much more dramatic. But it wasn't a little thing to me. It was a big thing. If it wasn't, why do I recall it so vividly all these years later, and continue to appreciate Ms. Barber for showing that kind of sensitivity. In teaching, little things mean a lot. In all human relationships, little things mean a lot. The difference between the great teacher and the mediocre teacher is only about that much.

Now, empathy, as important as it is, we need to keep in mind that we're not always going to read our students accurately. We'll intend the best, but the best will not always result because we're human beings. I can recall my younger daughter not getting the message. She was in nursery school or kindergarten, and she came home from school one afternoon and said, "Daddy, I got in a lot of trouble at school today and it's all your fault." And I said, "How could it have been my fault. I wasn't there." And she said, "Well you know at breakfast this morning when I asked you how much $500,000 dollars is?" And I said, "Yes, what about it?" She said, "Well, a hell of a lot ain't the right answer."

In addition to this empathy that is so very important for teachers--and this sounds awfully mundane, but it would be hard to overemphasize its importance because of the very nature of teachers--Ms. Barber was very energetic. If it's done right, there probably is no more physically, mentally, emotionally demanding profession than teaching. If you do it right, then you just have to keep giving and giving of yourself, hour after hour, day after day, week after week, month after month, year after year. Giving, giving, giving. And when you bring a group from here to here and you're just ready to enjoy the fruits of your labor, they send them on to another teacher and you get another group, and you have to give all over again. So it's understandable that you might look down the hall and see that occasional educator who's not really given of himself the way you have and say, "I'm going to let up." But the great teachers, the Ms. Barbers, Mr. Barbers, they hang in there and keep giving year after year. You heard about the teacher who died and went to hell. It was three weeks before she noticed the difference.

Another thing that is so important--and recent research on effective teaching and effective schools supports this--great teachers have high expectations of their students. High expectations. When I didn't get the sentence right the first time, thank God that Ms. Barber said, "Gurney, do it again." And when I didn't get it right the second time, she said gently, kindly, "Do it again." George Bernard Shaw said that the greatest sin against our fellow creatures is not to hate them, but to ignore them. It would have been easy for Ms. Barber to put me over in the corner and say, "Gurney, I know about your father who spent time in prison. I know about all those other Chambers--they dropped out at sixteen, so just don't give me any trouble. Sit over there and don't intefere with what we're doing." Thank God that Ms. Barber took the position of--"Gurney, until you show me that you don't have the intellectual capacity to do what the other children do, then you're going to have to do it."

Now I know that the most unequal thing in the world is to treat unequals equally so she was going to give me special help. You know, by not ignoring and by saying, "do it again," she was saying--without saying--"I care about you, Gurney. Your growth matters to me." I remember seeing Mortimer Adler, the philosopher, University of Chicago, and William Buckley, the editor of National Review. They were in a discussion about education, and Mortimer Adler was advocating the Great Books. To his everlasting credit, when William Buckley said "But Mortimer, how do you know that all children can learn?" Adler said, "I don't know, but I'd rather live by my hope than your doubt." All great teachers always believe that their students can learn. Goethe, the German mathematician/philosopher said, "If you treat a person as he is, he will stay as he is. But, if you treat him as if he were what he ought to be and could be, he will become what he ought to be and could be." Thank God Ms. Barber didn't treat me as I was, but she treated me as if I were what I ought to be and could be.

Having said that all great teachers, all great educators have high expectations of their students, I hasten to add that we must keep things in perspective. You can overdo that just as you can overdo anything. And sometimes teachers are guilty of that. Parents are guilty of that. I remember reading not too long ago about this kindergarten teacher out in California. She had thirteen children in her class and she gave all of them a failing grade at the end of the year. Obviously that teacher has lost perspective. I was reminded that I'm guilty of having too high expectations. One February morning several years ago when this same daughter that I mentioned earlier came to the breakfast table and she said, "Daddy, today's Abraham Lincoln's birthday. Did you know that?" And while I hadn't thought of it, I said, "Sure, I know that." She said, "He was a great man, wasn't he daddy?" And I said, "Yes he was, and when he was your age he was out splitting rails." And she said, "Yeah, I know daddy, and when he was your age he was President of the United States."

Great teachers are also concerned about the whole child, and I could elaborate on that. As important as it is, I won't. We must be concerned, not just about the intellectual dimension of the student, but also the physcial and the emotional. You can't ignore any of those if you get the job done. Because of time I want to talk about only one more characteristic of the great teacher. Great teachers, great helpers, great educators, are adapt at perceiving the hidden curriculum. In every classroom and every school and every school system there are at least two curriculums. There's the formal curriculum that you get paid to teach--the reading, writing, and arithmetic. But there's also, for lack of a better term, the hidden curriculum. That consists of all of those invisible forces that are at work in the classroom, affecting the way the child deals with the formal curriculum. And it can be more powerful than the formal curriculum. Great teachers can "read" that class--those students; they have greater empathy, greater sensitivity than the mediocre teachers, and they try to rid their classrooms of this hidden curriculum, or at least minimize the harmful effects.

Today we worry about such things in the hidden curriculum as broken homes, or one-parent homes, or latchkey children, or drug abuse--those serious kinds of things that are at this end of the continuum, all the way over to children who can't afford to wear designer jeans and Reebok shoes. We chuckle at the adolescent's great concern about those things, but that can be very painful to the father of two daughters. As the father of two daughters, I know how painful that can be.

I want to use this true story to illustrate how that hidden curriculum works, and do it so we'll become more sensitive to these things when we go back to our jobs. In my day if you were anybody, you ate in the lunchroom. If you were nobody, a country hick, you took your lunch to school. What I want to do is tell you the kinds of things that children in my day had to deal with that were very painful. It's an illustration of the hidden curriculum, and then tell you about another one of my wonderful teachers. Her name is Ms. Starr. Zola Starr--sixth grade teacher. Boy, what a wonderful, beautiful spinster with white hair. Beautiful! Boy, I loved that woman! All year, she pronounced Venezuela "Venezoola." I didn't know until the seventh grade that the correct pronounciation was Venezuela. I loved Ms. Starr so much, and I know how much she did for the children, that until this day I prefer the pronounciation "Venezoola" over Venezuela.

If you really felt like the scum of the earth, you took your lunch to school in a lard bucket. It was a tin lard bucket. You can't find them anymore, they're plastic. We know enough now about nutrition that we don't dare cook things in lard today. But if you had to put a sweet tater in that, and a little butter inside of it, and carry that into the school that day, your shoulders were a bit stooped, and you looked at the floor and you thought, "I can't cope with the reading, writing, and arithmetic today." Foolish...of course! But if we as children thought there was reason to be ashamed of that, and that people were looking at us and laughing, then that was our reality and that's what influenced us. A little bit better, but not a whole lot better, was something like a sugar bag in which you had purchased something. Rather than throwing that bag away the way that civilized people do after you had consumed what came in that bag, you were so poor that your mother said, "Save the bag and pack your lunch in it." A sugar bag wasn't as good as some because it's a little sticky inside, but we used it at my house on occasion. The favorite at my house was a one pound coffee bag. The texture of the paper's such, it's tough, and if you get caught in a rainstorm it won't fall apart, and there was a little metal strip at the top, and you could turn that under and play football on the way to catch the bus and your biscuits wouldn't fall out.

At my house with six children and school, my mother simply packed a lunch for each of us, and each bag contained the same thing, so it didn't matter which we grabbed on our way out. We had chores to perform so we were usually running late, and my mother would always set the six bags on the kitchen cabinet, and we would grab one. My older brother, Gordon, we call him "Gord"--who's not really all there, to be perfectly frank--was in the fourth grade at this time, and he grabbed his bag. You know how fourth grade growing boys are. Thirty minutes after they have eaten they're hungry again, and my brother thought he wasn't going to make it this particular morning until 11:30, which was the designated lunch hour. But he made it somehow, and at 11:30 he opened up his coffee bag and saw that he had picked up a new unopened bag of coffee. And not being too bright, Gordon thought, "Well gosh, finally mom has packed something different," and he ate that whole bag of coffee. My mother discovered what had happened, and she pulled the rest of us aside when we got home that afternoon and said "It appears that Gord ate the whole bag of coffee. Let's not mention it to him, we'll observe him carefully to see if there are any adverse effects." And we observed him carefully for the next day or so and there were no adverse effects. But his fourth grade teacher, Ms. Banner, said that was the first time all year that he had stayed awake. We couldn't get him to sleep for a couple of weeks.

The point of this is that it is an illustration of the hidden curriculum--and very young minds make these very fine distinctions in things and they cause a great deal of pain. Another bag that you didn't like to take lunch in was a light bread bag, not a good bag in which to take your biscuits because your classmates could see what you had brought, and you were, of course, ashamed of what you took to school. But in a way it was good, because if you had a light bread bag that told your peers that at least someone in the family had been to a store in recent weeks because you had to go to a store to get light bread. Better than a light bread bag was a greasy, brown, paper poke. But a greasy, brown, paper poke was not as good as a crisp new brown paper poke. The grease on the bag told your classmates that you had used that bag before. I can recall my mother telling me that I must fold my bag and bring it home. Probably back in those days you could get two or three for a penny, but a penny was a lot of money to my mother at the time. I thought people were laughing at me for using my bag again, and I wanted to throw it away. But I didn't want to have to put up with a scolding from my mother when I got home, so as secretly as I could, I folded the bag most of the time and put it in my pocket and took it home. The ultimate, if you had to take your lunch to school, was to take it in a store-bought lunch pail. I always wanted one of these but never could afford one. I was at an antique store in Morristown, Tennessee recently, and even though this isn't an antique, they were selling it as an antique and I bought it. Bing Sommers, the person I mentioned earlier whose mother was a teacher, had one of these. On occasion, following some illness, Bing would bring his lunch for a few days until he could get his stomach back in order. I used to look at that, admiring it and wanting one. It's the one with the pennants on it--Harvard and Yale, Princeton, Western Carolina University.

What you put in the lard bucket, or the lunch pail, or the poke, made a lot of difference. The worst thing probably was a sweet potato or a green onion, a piece of cornbread; anything that smelled of the country, of being rural, we were ashamed of. Now, did the teacher say, "You ought to be ashamed of that biscuit, or that sweet potato?" Of course not! But there was something in the culture of that school, in that community in which we grew up, that conveyed to us from rural homes that we should be ashamed of biscuits, sweet potatoes and blackberry jam. A biscuit and peanut butter was better than a biscuit and blackberry jam. The peanut butter at least came from the store. A light bread sandwich of anything was better than a biscuit of anything. In those days I would have traded a biscuit and country ham, for a light bread sandwich of mayonnaise. That would have been a crime, wouldn't it? The best thing you could take was a cheese sandwich or a luncheon meat sandwich, and your mother would cut it down the middle and you'd have those two dandy little halves.

I was talking with a friend who was a principal for a number of years in the area where I work, and he's from the tobacco farms down in the eastern part of North Carolina. I want you to listen to this, and if you're the kind of educator who could see this in a classroom and not stop everything in order to deal with this, then you don't have the emphathy, the heart, to be an educator. He said that they were so ashamed of what they took that they would open the brown poke and lean over it, take a bite, leaving the biscuit inside the bag, chew it, and then go back down for another bite. Now doesn't that break your heart? I didn't ask him what they would have done if they had taken it in a lard bucket instead of a bag, but I assume that they would have just draped this over their head and eaten it out the bucket the way a horse eats oats.

Ms. Starr, who I mentioned earlier, was aware of the pain that this kind of thing was causing us. One day she said, "Gurney, Billy Ray, Sally, Ernest...I noticed that you all bring the most wonderful country food to school. I just love country biscuits, but I don't know how to make them. I'm wondering if one day you would trade me a biscuit for one of my light bread sandwiches." Ms. Starr, being that wonderful human being, would occasionally bring her lunch to school. Now we loved Ms. Starr so much that if she thought biscuits were O.K., then by golly, they're O.K. A little thing, a small gesture--how important to children who are trying to deal with hidden curriculum.

Ms. Starr died a few years ago. I often had told myself that I should sit down, take about ten minutes, write a letter to her, telling her in her retirement how much she had meant to me and continued to mean to me, but she died before I ever got around to it. Ms. Barber, I had never thanked her, though hardly a day had passed in recent years that I--in a quiet moment in an automobile, or sitting on the deck at my home--that I hadn't thought of her and my other great teachers at all levels of my school, and thanked them silently for all that they had meant to me. I made a speech at an opening of school activity in my home county a few years ago, and there were some of my former teachers there that day. I thought that it would be appropriate to pay tribute to them, and I wanted to highlight Ms. Barber for reasons that I just pointed out. Ms. Barber today is approaching 100 years of age. She's in a rest home in Wilkes County, north Wilkesboro. It's a small town with a paper that comes out twice a week--the *Wilkes Journal Patriot*--and they're always looking for something to fill the space. So they did a rather detailed account of this presentation, and Ms. Barber had some friends in the audience, and they clipped this from the *Patriot* and sent the clipping to her in the rest home. Not long after that I was opening my mail in the office that day and the return address on the back of a letter was Mrs. William Barber, Field-Haven Lodge, 6601 Old Hwy. 421. I want to read you just a couple of excerpts from this letter. Once again the great teacher had taken the lead upon reading my remarks about her that were made in that presentation.

> Dear Gurney:
>
> I have been flooded with clippings of your recent speech to the teachers of Wilkes County, and I want to thank you now, while I'm living, for the flowers you gave me, and especially since they were cropped in Wilkes County where I spent so many happy days just teaching so many young children. I hope some of my teaching and influence rubbed off on some more of the children besides you.

(Well I can assure you her influence rubbed off on thousands of children during the course of her career.)

I'm at a nursing home, but able to be about unsteadily. See, the years have been added, but they've been good to me. Want you to know I remember you and always loved you.

Zola Barber

Remember me? I doubt it. Loved me? No doubt. I'm sure that she did. This wonderful teacher had given me two gifts that are lasting a life-time, and all great educators give their students these two gifts. First of all she gave me a good beginning--in the subject matter, the skills, the understandings that were appropriate. You must do that--that's essential. If we don't do that, we can't be great. While it's essential, it's not sufficient. She also gave me the self-assurance to use those skills, that knowledge, those understandings. All great teachers give their students those two things. And after receiving this letter I sat down and wrote a letter to her.

Dear Mrs. Barber:

I am going to frame your letter and hang it in my office where it will serve as a constant reminder to me, as a preparer of teachers, and to my students who are prospective teachers, of the powerful and permanent influence great teachers have on their students. I shall treasure your letter and always appreciate and love you for what you did for me. During the fifteen years of my professional career I often tell my students and others about you. I tell them that you personify the teacher who truly makes a tremendously positive difference in the lives of those children who need a lot of help. You're kind to say that I've done well. The modest success I have achieved would not have been possible without your patience and loving guidance thirty-five years ago. You may rest assured that there are thousands of your former students out there who thank you almost daily for the difference you made in their lives. I can't imagine a more worthy legacy.

With much love,

Gurney

So our goals ought to be, I think, first that we be a Ms. or Mr. Barber, and second--for those of us that are preparing teachers--that we do our best to prepare Ms. and Mr. Barbers, and that as educators interested in rural and small schools, that we do all that we can to attract the Ms. and Mr. Barbers to those schools, and once we've attracted them--to keep them there.

Thank you very much for your attendance.

EDITED TRANSCRIPT

Report from the Hill: Present and Future Congressional Support for Rural and Small Schools

Panel: Bob Silverstein, Staff Director,
Senate Committee on Handicapped

Beth Buehlmann, Minority Staffer,
House Education & Labor Committee

Gray Garwood, House Subcommittee
on Postsecondary Education

BETH BUEHLMANN: Congress will be working on the Vocational Education Act in the next session. We'll start looking at various factors and concerns within that program, and I think there will be concerns and issues that can be addressed with respect to the rural situation. And then juvenile justice delinquency prevention will be an issue that we will be considering in the next session in this Congress. All of these programs present various concerns and various questions. We look at formulas and the factors of those formulas. Do those factors bias where the money is directed, how the money is targeted, what children will receive the services? We look at support services. Are the supportive services that have to be provided in rural areas and urban areas different? Should consideration be given to the differences in those types of supportive services and a means or a mechanism of placing those supportive services where they are needed? For example, under worker programs, one great concern is the transportation issue in rural areas and how that transportation issue can be affected, hence better targeted, so that we can get people who live in areas where the jobs are a great distance from their homes, to those jobs, to the training centers, to the vocational centers.

Having worked with employment and training programs over the last eight years that is always the factor that comes up along with the formula factor when we're talking about rural areas. Do we deal in sheer numbers or do we talk about percentages when we're dealing with formulas? If you talk about numbers versus percentages you, again, affect the formula and where that money is driven. What is the minimum amount to run a program? We're always asked that question when we talk about state education agencies, when we talk about local education agencies, or when we talk about having a sufficient size and scope of a program. You're talking totally different language when you're talking about urban situations versus a rural situation. What is the minimum amount of money if you're going to give a .5%, say for example, a small state minimum. Quite frankly, given the number of dollars, is that going to be a sufficient amount of money to run a program or do you have to set an absolute dollar limit? We talk about numbers, we talk about dollars, we talk about percentages and the like.

So those are factors that are constantly being discussed and it is very difficult when you're talking about new programs and you're talking about additional functions that have to be provided in a program. We have to take the history of the program, the trends that have evolved over time to provide us with the best information in terms of what kinds of dollars are needed to run those programs. Oftentimes when we're not sure whether a program will be something that we want to have in an infrastructure or the basic framework of a program, we'll go to a demonstration of how to project. Whenever we do that we always look for geographic distribution. We always look for the balance between the rural and urban because there are things that we can learn in both settings, in both situations, and so it is critical that we assure in the legislation that the pilots of the demonstration program balance out with respect to these factors.

What are the complications, what are the barriers to having some representation or some rural flavor in the programs that we work with? Very often, when you're dealing with formulas, everybody wants the simplest, the least complicated formula you can put through and if you start adding factors--additional set-asides, additional floors, additional ceilings, and so on--you're complicating the formulas to the point that people don't want to have to deal with it. For the amount of money that goes into these programs you'll hear it's not worth trying to figure out how to put this formula together. That's a constant argument that has to be faced, the challenges are there and we just have to fight them. When you're dealing with floors in formulas or in allocations, oftentimes those become barriers because instead of looking at that it's a minimum amount of money that can go toward a particular issue, a particular concern, people start viewing it as the maximum amount. We've given them ten percent, we've done our duty, we've paid our dues and now we can go on with the rest of it and we can ignore the concerns and the additional needs that are there.

All of those things can be barriers in terms of getting representation or money targeted or flown to particular groups or areas of the country that we would like to see the money go to. Given some of those questions that I've raised and some of those things that I've discussed I always tend to, when I'm on a panel, turn to the Senate. First, because they view themselves as the upper body and then we'll turn to the House so I'll have Bob Silverstein go first and then Gray Garwood.

BOB SILVERSTEIN: I think what I'll now try to do is give you some specific examples of how things are worked out kind of flowing from Beth's introduction. She talked generally about the kinds of issues when we look at constraints. Let me give you some examples of what Congress has faced in the hundredth Congress. It was a major piece of legislation for dealing with worker dislocation and retraining and you look through the legislation and it was just total urban oriented--the formula, the types of programs that they were suggesting. So both in the House and in the Senate attempts were made to address the fact that in fact there are farmers out there who have gone through a crisis that some of us might have heard about and need some retraining and the typical training programs oftentimes were not designed to meet the needs of farmers. So, we were able in the Senate to get a special demonstration project which earmarked $20 million to go to the states hardest hit by the farm crisis. The House had a similar provision without the earmarking of funds but again that's one example of how a bill starts out and it ignores part of the country in terms of needs. It's the responsibility of the members who represent the farm states or the rural states to try to revive and sometimes we get a lot and sometimes we get a little. In terms of this example, on the Senate side, we were able to get $20 million and conference. I don't know if any of the demonstrations are going to survive and, if they do, whether the earmark will stay. But that's an example of how we needed to get specific money earmarked as well as have a specific component of the legislature targeted on a particular population regarding the rural areas.

Another example is Chapter 1. Chapter 1 has two formulas and one is a basic grant formula which drives money to over 14 thousand school districts. In addition, there is a concentration formula which is designed to target money to school districts with especially high concentrations of poor children. Well, that concentration formula, although it has been in existence since 1978, was only funded twice--once in 1980 and once in 1981 at a level of $100 million. The reason it hasn't been funded in the other years is because some states, a very few, benefited in a very big way, such as California, New York, and other states got hurt in a very big way and most of those states that got hurt are the rural states--Iowa, Kansas, Indiana, etc. Now, in the process of reauthorizing Chapter 1 we had to figure out what to do. The House took a particular approach, the Senate has leafed through, the committee level has taken another approach and let me give you an example with bottom-line numbers of the difference between the two bills and then kind of step back and explain the substance behind it.

Let's take Iowa. Under the House bill Iowa would receive, assuming $400 million set aside for concentration, $1 million. If that same $400 million had been distributed under the basic state grants Iowa would have received about $3.5 million. That's over a 70% reduction in the amount that Iowa would receive if the money had gone out in the basic state grants. What were some of the factors that are included in the House bill or in current law? Well, they rely primarily on census data and census data is 1980, probably the numbers were collected in 1979, the 1980 census. We're talking data that's seven, eight years old. Furthermore, with the data, because of the national level, we only can go down to the county level. You really, in many respects, are not counting correctly and besides which, as I said, it's old data, we're also using county data and county data hurts small states and rural states in many cases where there are a lot of school districts.

So, let me give you an example in contrast. Let's look at New York where you have a Nassau County which may have a number of school districts but it is a very large county and in Nassau County there are some very, very wealthy school districts but in those wealthy school districts there are some poor children. Well, if you're going to the county level you are counting the poor children in the wealthy school districts in order to determine who gets this bonus money. The same thing is not going to happen in terms of benefit in those small states. So the small states really get hurt very badly. In the Senate my boss came up with a proposal that what we should do is distribute the money to the states based on the regular formula and then also have a .5 minimum for the small states. Once it gets to the state, it goes to those school districts based on current data, not eight or nine year old data which have especially high concentrations using numbers and percentages as Beth was talking about before. So we are getting money to the rural states and then within the rural states we are getting money to the urban as well as the rural districts by using percentages and numbers and current data.

Some states on the committee didn't appreciate the change because they lost big. Illinois and New York and California, although New York and California aren't committee, they would have lost very big by the Hawkins proposal. But a compromise was reached so that half of the money would go out based on the Hawkins proposal, half of the money would go out based on more of the proposal based on current law. The net result is that the rural states received a significant increase over what the house and current law would provide.

Again, using the specific example of Iowa, instead of receiving $1 million under the House bill, would receive $2.8 million which again is a significant increase. It means that close to 3500 additional children in Iowa would receive compensatory services. But this is, you know, an example of the kinds of back and forth that go on in terms of the formula fight. And hopefully it will stay in through the Senate and then hopefully in conference. California gets hurt in a big way. Chairman Hawkins on the House side is from California, so it is going to be an interesting issue in conference. But, you can see even though we're not talking about a great amount of money, given that Chapter 1 is a $4 billion program, it is a significant issue. Thirty-five hundred children is not insignificant in a small state.

A number of bills have been moving through the Senate. There is a bill that you may have heard of called Star Schools which would provide assistance for telecommunication. The bill, as originally drafted, was absolutely urban oriented in terms of the words. The task was to modify the words and the criteria so that rural states could qualify and win a competition. In addition, again consistent with what Beth was saying, we insure that there must be geographic distribution in terms of grants. Another bill that I think Joe Schneider talked to you about yesterday was 1778, the Rural Educational Opportunities Act, which will create ten regional centers for aiding rural schools. It has been included in the Senate Omnibus Bill.

My closing comment is that outside of this town, the word lobbyist may have a negative or dirty connotation but in this town they are critical to the operations of Congress. It is through lobbyists that Congress frequently gets the information that they need and also provide the pressure that assist those who believe in the same cause as those lobbyists in getting things accomplished. Having a lobbyist in Washington that focuses on a particular issue, in this case the needs of the rural states, school districts and small schools, is critical. How you do it, where you get the money, I don't know, but the notion of having somebody in Washington, D.C., who represents you, in my opinion, is a very, very important thing to think about. I know that you work through a number of organizations right now and it's lack of resources, that's the best you can do. Sometimes that's okay. But, to the extent that you can get somebody in town I think it will make a big difference. We're trying to do the best we can but we need all the help we can get.

GRAY GARWOOD: I don't know what I can say that will add to what both Beth and Bob have said this morning with respect to specific legislation that's moving through Congress at this point. So, I'll talk about some good news and some bad news. But, before I do that I am struck by the fact that you folks have invited the choir to come talk to you this morning. Beth didn't mention it but she's from Vermont and you probably know by now that Bobby's representing us in Iowa and my boss, as you probably know, is from Montana. So I suspect we have rural folks talking to rural folks and sometime during the meeting I hope you had a chance to talk to some of the folks that represent urban states. Give them a sense of the concerns that you have and let them know that they need to work with those people that represent rural states in ways that are effective for your own concerns. As Bobby mentioned, the chairman of the Committee on Educational Labor on the House side represents an urban inner-city district in east Los Angeles and so when we get to this issue of the Chapter 1 concentration formula it's going to be touch and go. There are those of us who represent rural interests who try to negotiate with a fairly large body of those that represent urban issues. You need to let the people know your feelings on that and not just those of us that agree with you so I encourage you to do that between now and the conference.

Since I've been in Washington, which has been since 1982, it has been very difficult to talk to people about the good news. We have been struck with some rather depressive deficits and some policies that we might not always agree with that make it difficult to come out in these sorts of situations and talk about the good news. But I do have a couple of pieces of good news and I'll share those with you--you probably already know about some of them. My boss, who prior to chairing the Subcommittee on Postsecondary Education was Chairman of the Subcommittee on Select Education and in that tenure he and Bobby and I were able to, with the assistance of a few other people, create the infant intervention piece--the discretionary program under the special education legislation--and also to provide some incentives for the full service of all three to five year olds. If you look in that language there is more reference to ruralness than there was before. In fact, if you look at all the legislations that passed through Chairman Williams committee in the years that Bobby and I were working on that committee, there is a lot of reference to ruralness--in the arts legislation, in the rehab legislation, in the special ed legislation, in the vista legislation, and any other piece that we could get our hands on that didn't come to our committee. In fact, people used to look at us and they knew what we were going to say when we would come into a meeting because just as Bobby mentioned people would draft a bill, for example, the dropout prevention bill, that sort of ignores a substantial geographic part of the country and when you drive things only on the basis of population density you do in fact ignore substantial portion of the country. So we're sort of known around the hill as those folks that talk about ruralness and in some ways Indians as well because we have a special cache for Indian issues also.

That's part of the good news--the infant intervention piece and the progress, but I'm also pleased to let you know that as of two weeks ago the department agreed and funded the first regional research and training center for rural issues in rehabilitation located in Missoula, Montana. That center has been assured five years of funding to begin to develop a national focus for looking at issues that affect people involved in rehabilitation from a rural perspective and so I hope that those of you who are involved in the educational aspects of ruralness, and that's both special education and rehabilitation, you may want to make some contact with the center in Missoula, Montana. Either find out more about what they're doing or participate in some of the things that they are doing. And if you have advice I'm sure they would appreciate that as well. As you may know, we have R & T centers all over the country but until last week we didn't have any that focused on rehabilitation strictly from a rural perspective. All the others are devoted to some type of condition. For example, there is one dealing with deafness. There is one dealing with mental retardation. There is one dealing with brain damage or spinal cord damage. This one deals with the problems that are related to being geographically isolated. And so I think it has the opportunity to provide some very helpful models and information to all of us.

SPECIAL-INTEREST
SESSIONS

National Education Association Presentation

October 15th, 10:00 - 11:30 a.m.

What Teachers Are Doing To Improve Rural Education

In this workshop, local initiatives will be described by teachers who are implementing projects of the NEA in their rural schools. At "Mastery in Learning" sites, teacher-led staff are designing strategies for school-renewal efforts and creating the climate and conditions necessary for students to master knowledge and skills. In "Operation Rescue" teachers have organized school and community resources and have obtained funding grants from the NEA to address the dropout issue. Also in this session, "the impact of the rural recession on public school financing and programs," a report from the NEA Research Division, will be distributed and discussed.

October 14, 1987 - 10.00 - 11:15 a.m.

Rebecca Yount
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Council of Chief State
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RAISING FUNDS FOR RURAL EDUCATION

The First Steps

This past summer, the Washington Post ran a stunning article in its Sunday magazine entitled, On the Road to Nowhere, subtitled "America's Small Towns are Dying." A Post staff writer traveled by car from the far reaches of the Northwest territories to the West Virgina coal mines. I would like to read a paragraph from that article to you.

> The road begins in the Northwest, where burly loggers are out of work because a generation of their urban cousins cannot afford the white picket fence of the American dream, a new home. The journey meanders through small towns where smelters are closed because copper comes more cheaply from Chile; through places where oil from Saudi Arabia is cheaper than oil from Colorado mountain shale; through the great American breadbasket, where farmers are in trouble even though they produce more grain on less land than at any time in history. The trip nears an end in West Virginia, where grizzled miners while away their days on unpainted front porches because their coal is no longer needed to forge steel for what was once the Gibraltar of the strongest economy on earth, America's heavy industry.

Clearly, the international dimensions of our economy have placed rural areas, and thus rural schools, in the most threatened circumstances in which they have found themselves since Great Depression. Unfortunately (in my opinion), there is no FDR committed to putting a chicken in every pot, rally the WPA, and other such services, or dedicated to not forgetting our farmers, miners, lumberjacks, and rural school teachers. Rural regions now pretty much have to "hack it" on their own--ironic when you think that the U.S. offers massive development aid to the Third World but cannot sustain its own farmers.

But those are the circumstances, and they are not about to change anytime soon. Never before has rural education needed to develop the finesse and know-how to seek funding on its own from sources it is mostly unaccustomed to approaching, namely large national private foundations, large corporate foundations, and even local funding sources of one kind or another. Be that as it may, rural educators will have to get used to playing the "funding game" because, in all probability, rural economies will have to develop alternative sources of revenue far into the future.

Today, I have been asked to give a brief overview on how to make the first approach to potential funders. Before I do that, let me say that there are funders, and there are funders. Mary Leonard will go into specific detail about foundation funding vs. corporate funding and how to detect funding priorities. I will simply set the tone and establish a mind-set for the first approach. There are at least three ingredients that make a successful first approach to a funder.

Ingredient #1

First and foremost, be prepared. DO YOUR HOMEWORK. Don't even begin to approach a funding source until you have full knowledge about its mission and funding priorities. Be clear about the issues you want funded and focus your proposed program. Remember, in most large private foundations, the program offficer you talk to will know more about your topic than you do. So keep up with all of the research in your area, and be familiar and up to date with the knowledge base.

Don't just pick up the phone and call a funder "cold." After you have researched the potential funder's goals, programs, and mission and once you have clearly established the focus of your program, find out who in that foundation handles that specific area (by asking friends, informed persons who have had dealings with the foundation, or by calling the main number of the foundation and asking). Once you have established that, write that person a brief, one-page letter explaining your proposed program. Give some background on the organization you represent. At the end of the letter, state that you will call within ten (10) working days. This way, the appropriate person will have some background on your program and will know when to expect your call. Private foundations, for the most part, are extremely good about responding, even if it is a negative response. Recently, I submitted a proposal to a large, national private foundation jointly with another organization. We received a reply from the program officer that they were not interested. However, he went on for a single typed page offering some insights to our proposal and how to strengthen it. Corporate funders are sometimes less responsive. But don't let that put you off. Persistence pays off.

Ingredient #2

Establish the right attitude. Just because you are "doing good," don't think that you will immediately capture the attention of the funder. Believe it or not, funders are inundated with proposals that serve the good of mankind (and some of them actually do). Be insightful in presenting your case to funders by putting it in context with what is happening with the rest of education--in short, KEEP THE BIG PICTURE IN MIND. You may be serving a very specific function with your proposed program, but if it is not potentially replicable or translatable into other contexts, you will have much less of a chance to gain the funder's interest. Finally, know rural education globally, not just locally. Enter the big picture nationally and also put your program into a larger context in terms of what is happening in rural education as a whole. Funders need to know that a whole way of life and whole value system are endangered and that they can help.

Ingredient #3

Think small first. Half a loaf is better than none. Solicit small grants first from funders who do not know you--planning grants, seed grants, in short, mini-grants. Let the funders know what you can do. Some of you have heard me tell the story of the time I was involved in a project that served a consortium of higher education institutions. We gave each campus an $800 activity grant. Most of those campus participants thought the grants were a joke. But two campus leaders didn't laugh. They were the ones who went on to bigger and better bucks--one receiving $1 million over three years from DOE, and the other receiving over $100,000 over two years from another government agency. During the first phase of the Mellon projects, we granted thirty-nine $2,000 planning grants to as many states to set long range goals for school/college collaboration programs. At last count, 27 of those grants were sustained with more dollars from various sources. Mini-grants do work on the atomic principle.

Conclusion

There is really no easy way to start up a fund raising program. It takes hard work, persistence, and some real faith. I have often said that if I had a nickel for every proposal of mine that was turned down by a funder, I could have retired to Aruba years ago. But the effort is worth it. And it eventually pays off. You will have a few more gray hairs, and may be taking more Pepto Bismol than usual. But if you seek good advice, do your homework, keep the faith, you will make your first breakthrough. From then on, it gets easier.

October 14, 1987 10:00-11:15 am

Mary K. Leonard
Director
Precollegiate Education Prograr
Council on Foundations

Notes from Talk to National Rural and Small Schools Consortium Meeting

I. Road Map to Private Philanthropy

About 25,000 foundations exist in U.S.

a. 23,500 are private grantmaking foundations (including corporate)

b. 250 are community foundations

c. 1,250 are operating (non-grantmaking) foundations

But, top 4,400 foundations gave 85% of grant dollars "Directory"-sized = assets of $1 million+ or grants = $100,000+

**** Of the 25,000 U.S. foundations, approximately 90% restrict their giving geographically.

Foundations tend to be located in areas which reflect past economic and industrial development. Nearly half the nation's largest foundations are in the Middle Atlantic states (although some do give nationally). Large growth is only now occurring in the Sun Belt states (e.g., J. Paul Getty Trust, Hilton Foundations, Buck Trust in California).

II. Trends and Priorities in Foundation Giving

a. There's been a strong surge in giving to "lower ed" in recent years.

b. There's also been a strong increase in giving to public ed in recent years.

c. Although many funders continue to bite off manageable chunks (funding a remedial reading project in a single school building), a number of funders are now interested in projects which benefit a whole school or even whole district (e.g., an effective school project).

d. Grants are tending to be fewer in number, but for larger amounts and longer terms (three year grants rather than one year grants.)

e. Foundations are increasingly insistent that projects have strong school board/administration/union support (with financial support where applicable), and generally prefer to co-fund rather than take on an entire project themselves. All these requirements are designed to increase the chances for long term survival after the grant runs out.

f. Funders are very interested in collaborative projects (school-business, school-university, social service organization-school, etc.), which involve collective approaches to problem-solving, and reduce administrative costs.

g. Funders continue to provide, for the most part, only project money and not general operating support. Since foundation assets are ordinarily stable over a number of years, foundations most often must complete work in one field before they move on to new areas.

III. Sources of Information on Giving Interests

The best indicator of what a foundation will do in the future is what they've done in the past. The best way to find out what they've done in the past is read their annual report or 990. Both are available at your local Foundation Center. To find the location of the Cooperating Collection nearest you, call (800) 424-9836.

The local Community Foundation serves as a broker/convener in many locales.

The Chronicle of Higher Ed and Education Week cover philanthropy rather well.

It is vitally important to do your homework before approaching a foundation. Foundations indicate that the reason for turn-down in 80% of the proposals they receive is that the proposals fall outside their giving guidelines (area of interest, geographic limits, amount requested is too high/too low).

Most foundations prefer to receive a brief (2-3 pp. maximum) letter of inquiry testing their general interest/availability of funds prior to receiving a full-blown proposal.

Mary K. Leonard
Director
Precollegiate Education Program
Council on Foundations

Patricia McGill Smith
Office of Special Education
and Rehabilitative Services
Thurs. Oct. 15 10-11:15

THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE ON DISABILITY AND REHABILITATION RESEARCH

Recent Funding on Rural Activities

The National Institute on Disability and Rehabilitation Research (NIDRR) recently completed two three-year projects designed to find models for the provision of independent living information in rural areas. These were the National Rural Independent Living Network (Western Washington University) and the rural project of The Institute For Rehabilitation and Research (Baylor University). The rural independent living concerns group APRIL was an outgrowth of the latter project.

NIDRR also funded two projects at Purdue University on adapting agricultural equipment for disabled farmers. One project produced a source book on such adaptations, the other sponsored the "Breaking New Ground" newsletter.

A rural focus project was initiated at the Menninger Rehabilitation Research and Training Center. This project included a literature review on disability management and return to work of rural disabled persons.

Current Projects

In FY '87 NIDRR funded an innovation project at the Easter Seal Society of Iowa, which will demonstrate methods of utilizing local community resources in the development and implementation of rural rehabilitation technologies to increase independence and productivity of severely disabled persons residing on Iowa family farms. This project grew out of the Breaking New Ground project, but will illustrate a community based approach to overcoming the barriers that prevent technologies from being directly applied. This approach will utilize community resource people, places and materials needed to obtain or fabricate the device or modifications.

The reauthorization of the Rehabilitation Act in 1986 called for several actions to be taken which impact on rural populations. It called for a study of the rehabilitation needs of Native American populations and for the establishment of a Rehabilitation Research and Training Center on the Delivery of Services in Rural areas.

NIDRR joined with the Rehabilitation Services Administration and NIDRR's two Research and Training Centers on Native Americans to produce a special report to meet the Congressional mandate. In addition, NIDRR continued funding of the two Research and Training Centers, which are located at Northern Arizona University and the University of Arizona. Research at these centers is directed at identifying and eliminating possible causes of of disability among this population, improving service delivery, training to increase the number of indigenous personnel in rehabilitation, studying Native American rehabilitation systems and improving aspects of the rehabilitation system for the target population.

In FY'87 NIDRR funded a Research and Training Center in Rural Rehabilitation at the University of Montana. This center will conduct a series of research projects focusing on the needs of disabled persons in rural areas, strategies for providing independent living and other rehabilitation services and for fostering rural rehabilitation technologies.

For information contact:

Ellen Liberti
732-1206

DPP Rural Grant Information

- Number of Grants Awarded Under Rural Competition since 1985: 30
- Number of Grants Awarded Under Other DPP Competitions since 1985: 20
- Total Amount Awarded:

Rural Competition:	$ 2,262,855
Other Competitions:	$ 1,575,190
	$ 3,838,045

- States with Rural Grants & Number of Grants Per State:

Rural Competition:
Utah (3)
Washington (3)
Montana (2)
Connecticutt (1)
Alaska (1)
North Carolina (1)
Louisiana (1)
West Virginia (3)
Illinois (3)
Arizona (1)
Oregon (3)
Minnesota (2)
California (1)
Idaho (1)
District of Columbia (1)
Vermont (1)
Kansas (2)

Other Competitions: with a Rural Component:
Alabama (1)
Kentucky (1)
Mississippi (1)
Arkansas (2)
Alaska (1)
Minnesota (1)
Oregon (2)
Colorado (1)
Oklahoma (1)
Utah (1)
Nebraska (1)
North Carolina (1)
Maine (1)
Arizona (2)
California (1)
Texas (1)
Tennessee (1)

- States with More Than One Rural Grant (total):

Utah (4)
Washington (3)
Oregon (5)
California (2)
Minnesota (3)
Arkansas (2)
Arizona (3)
Montana (2)
Alaska (2)
No. Carolina (2)

- Rural Competition: Geographic Region of States

Twenty ~~one~~ two (22) of the 30 Rural Competition grants are from states in the Midwest, West, Southwest and Northwest.

Southern States have 3 grans and Eastern states have 5 grants.

- Areas of Training (30 Rural Competition Grants)

Speech-Language (3)
Technology (2)
Visual Impairment (2)
Infant (2)
Transition (2)
Adminis. (1)
Adapted Phys. Ed. (2)
Sch. Psychology (1)
Early Childhood (1)
Emot. Dis. (1)
Mod/Severely (8)

- There are 3 grants emphasizing Native Americans. Most grants are Master's programs.
- Most grants are Master's and/or certification programs.
- The 30 Rural Competition grants have trained over 1206 individuls to date.

Panel Presentation: Serving Students With Disabilities in Rural and Small Schools: Challenges and Solutions

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium, October 15, 1987

Ann N. Smith

University of Colorado Health Sciences Center
School of Nursing

I would like to establish some credibility for speaking before this rural and small school session, first by saying that I spent the first 17 years of my life on a family farm, in a town with a population of 25 hundred. Then, the early years of my career in nursing were spent as a county public health nurse in the same rural area where I grew up.

Later in our work at the University of Colorado School of Nursing, we demonstrated the role of the pediatric nurse practitioner and the school nurse practitioner and have been involved in numerous studies of the quality of primary care in rural areas delivered by these professional groups.

Most recently, my own interest in infants and children with disabilities has led us to developing experience in the delivery of high quality education for practicing school nurses and other professionals, in their home communities. Since 1980, the national continuing education course called SNAP (School Nurse Achievement Program), on childhood disabilities for practicing school nurses, originally funded by the U.S. Office of Special Education, has been offered in 25 states with over 4,500 nurses enrolled. Six states are offering new SNAP courses this year in both urban and rural locations. Based on the experience with SNAP, two new graduate level courses, one in applied genetics, another in advanced school nursing for children with disabilities, are is now being delivered using the train-the-trainer model. The genetic applications course is an interdisciplinary course, designed for educators as well as health professionals who work with families and individuals with potential, or known, genetically-based disabilities.

In another national training project based at the University of Colorado, my colleague, Marilyn Krajicek, is currently demonstrating First Start - delivery of daycare worker and educational aide specialized training. Course delivery for First Start extends from Maine to Florida to Nebraska to Alaska with numerous sites in-between. More than 200 child care workers have received specialized training to call for chronically ill and disabled infants to date. An integral part of our outreach educational programs is demonstration and evaluation of use of self-instructional educational materials, including computer assisted tutorials and development of home video training, for both parents and professionals who care of children with disabilities.

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My point of view, then, is from experience gained in outreach education, or as the Canadians say "distance education," in programs in the areas of infant and childhood disability and applied genetics. Our record in reaching geographically isolated populations has been good and, with the successful introduction of computer assisted instruction, and videotape for the home VCR, the potential is great for increasing the availability and accessibility of high quality instruction for practicing health and education professionals working in rural areas.

In preparing for this panel, I called a number of school nurses, special education teachers, and maternal child health consultants who have become known to us through our courses in rural sites in some of the 25 states. Two of these colleagues are from rural school districts located on the periphery of urban areas - usually just over the county line - where zoning laws, social and health services become suddenly sparse; the others are from southwestern Colorado, Alaska, Wyoming, Missouri and Minnesota. I asked their opinions on the subject of health challenges presented by students with disabilities in rural and small schools.

I have grouped the responses from these front-line individuals into three categories: Number one is General Under-Recognition of the Significance of Health Factors in Determining Learning Experiences in School.

A special educator in Wyoming described the situation where children frequently received out of district assessments 3-6 hours away - in Salt Lake City or Denver. In addition to new interventions and treatments, a child may be maintained on a potent medication administered by the parents but not monitored by a physician in the local community. Some system of coordination and management in school is needed.

When I inquired about the school nurses part in this - the educator said that vision and hearing were not an important part of the situation. The school nurses role with disabled children, which extends well beyond that of adaptive screening, has been published and widely circulated through a national position paper and the professional organizations for the past eight years. The reasons for under-utilization of school nurses in rural areas are many and have been cited before - lack of professional support, lack of a clear definition of the school nurse as consultant or direct service provider, over-extension of school nurses over too many schools and miles - and lack of assertiveness and visability on the school nurses part in determining what they should do. Often the high visibility of emergency needs in a school district determines the definition of the school nurses' priority, and the more subtle and complicated health factors associated with childhood disabilities are not addressed. Or they become the responsibility of someone else.

The number two category is Factors of Geographic Isolation and Other Conditions of Rural Life Affecting Health Status of Disabled Children.

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The first factor is a positive one reported by two of my distant informants. In one small Southwestern Colorado community, entrance of a hearing and speech impaired child to the school was so unusual that it became a matter of school-wide interest and involvement. It was an event, and in several months of advance preparation, the child's teacher learned sign language and the child's classmates also learned basic signing skills.

Eighteen hundred miles to the Northwest in Sitka, Alaska, I received a report of a school principal who is preparing the school now for a blind child who will arrive next year. State consultants and Child-Find team members who know the child are preparing the school staff now, again the result of personal involvement and the potential for strong social support found and valued in rural communities.

Another of my colleagues explained to me why in geographically isolated areas, there is a need to be more clinically astute and aware of preventive health, especially as associated with childhood disabilities where every disability may represent a clinical sub-specialty in itself. For example, children, who have been oxygen deprived as infants, are now six or seven years old. Empirical data from the field shows a higher tendency for swallowing, choking, and eating difficulties. The first problem is convincing local medical communities to believe the new information being reported by the school staff working with the children on a daily basis. The second is the recognition of urgency of staff training around these special needs. School personnel working with individual children on a daily basis may be the first to recognize that a new clinical pattern is evolving.

Some other factors of health of children with disabilities in small schools also have a relationship to isolation. A particular need of school personnel to be able to evaluate marginal therapies was one factor which caught my attention. School personnel are, on occasion, caught up in therapies strongly advocated by marginal practitioners or even parents who have consulted books on supplemental diet ingredients or who have started their child on exercise regimens of unknown value. Perhaps personnel in rural areas are more susceptible to doubting their own judgement about the value of marginal therapies because of isolation from their professional colleagues. An article by Mackenzie in the January '87 Journal of School Health on "Evaluation Health Information" provides a very useful guide evaluating marginal therapies and also serves to validate and broaden one's own professional judgement. Mackenzie suggests specific steps for evaluating the source, the author of the written material, and the information itself. This approach might well be applied to all of the therapeutic measures being carried out in the schools.

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Another area brought to my attention was the increasing need for respite care in rural areas, especially for middle income families. For many families, the school is the respite service. Quality of generic community services for children with disabilities is also receiving attention in the respite-care literature. Such services might include child care, church groups, teen programs, 4-H and scouts. Today, for parents, it is not enough simply to be grateful that their children have some place to go. The content and quality of these community based programs, for the disabled child, must also be examined.

A third category of observations, which caught my attention, as reported by my consultants is, as you might surmise: Factors Which Can be Remedied or Alleviated by Improved Education Strategies.

As with all school districts these days, rural districts are re-examining chronic illness and communicable disease school policies. While uncontrolled communicable disease causing community alarm may still be unknown in most rural communities, the experiences being reported nationwide are serving as an impetus to put solid policies and advance educational programs in place.

Another area where increased staff training is needed involves the preschool population. With educational services increasing for preschool children with disabilities, school staff needs retraining and school nurses also need to learn new assessment skills and management of health needs of this new population.

The situation of teachers being responsible for special procedures required by disabled children has always been of interest to us at the School of Nursing. The reports from stressed principals and teachers was a primary motivation for our starting SNAP. in 1980. Recently, Dr. Marilyn Ault and her associates at the University of Kansas shared with us her study of health related procedures currently being performed by teachers.

One hundred and fifty teachers of students with severe and multiple impairments in the State of Kansas were surveyed. Twenty-eight procedures, including some fairly technical tasks, such as changing tracheostomy tubes and tracheostomy ties, catheterization procedures and machine suctioning were included. In a 70% response rate, all of the procedures, except one, were occurring in the classroom. The teachers indicated that, for the most part, they were responsible for implementing the procedures on a routine basis.

Dodging the obvious question of how much time should teachers spend doing health related procedures, the second question becomes how do they learn, competently and safely, to perform the procedures? In Ault's Kansas study there was not a consistent state policy or source of training although parents or the family physician were reported to be the most frequent sources of training information.

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My rural informants have strong opinions about the need for clear district policies about health-related procedures. They are equally adamant about not placing the entire burden of staff training upon the parents. Especially in situations when error or undertraining can result in dire consequences for the child, parents need the presence of professional school personnel, who have checked the accuracy of performance of the procedure, and who will be present to train other school personnel and monitor performance in the school as needed.

This brings me full circle as to why we have been involved for the past eight years with national continuing education for school nurses and other professionals working with children with disabilities. Our current efforts in the success of computer assisted instruction, and now videotape instruction, particularly in health procedures for use on the home VCR by professionals and parents alike, are heartening. We are impressed by the commitment and ability of many hundreds of nurses and educators from rural areas whom we have met through the courses. Establishing and reinforcing the strengths of local community involvement and resources has been a major thrust of the educational activities. Thank you for inviting me to comment on these issues.

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National Rural and Small School Conference Oct. 13-17, 1987
Thursday 2:35-3:50 Special Interest Session

SERVING STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN RURAL & SMALL SCHOOLS: CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

Presentation by Panalist Bill Dopheide, University of Maine:

The Key to Quality is Collaboration

This presentation deals with the affects of the quality of collaboration on the development, delivery, and dividends achieved in an emergency special education personnel preparation program in the State of Maine. Four years of experience with an accelerated graduate education program for speech language clinicians provided a range of satisfactions, problems, and proposals useful to those considering similar efforts.

The collaborators on the project were the Maine Department of Educational & Cultural Services (SEA), the University of Maine (IHE), school districts providing practica sites for the graduate students (LEAs), and the USOE/OSERS. The project goal was to accelerate the entrance into special education of Maine residents who already held a college degree. The process model was characterized as a study-work/study model that provided carefully guided practice along with academic study throughout the three year duration of the program. Need for the program was documented in the longstanding shortage in Maine for school based professionals to serve the special needs of children with spoken communication disabilities.

In its developmental phase, problems of a collaborative sort arose in LEAs the project was envisioned as assisting. Efforts at the SEA level to secure recruitment support from LEAs were not successful. However, several LEAs collaborated fully in the provision of practica sites. At the IHE several problems arose that were not anticipated. The policies, practices, and problems, as well the resources that might be allocated to them are described and discissed.

The delivery of the first year academic and clinical education was managed collaboratively by the IHE and selected LEAs with considerable effectiveness. While providing a number of excellent entry level professionals, it was a costly process that fell short of its stated personnel preparation goals. Better planning and management strategies are presented to improve this aspect of the project. The strategies involve admission standards, curriculumm planning/management, and certification procedures.

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Supervision and consultation of participants during their first two years of professional employment (project years two and three) required intensive faculty involvement and travel. It also required a great deal of flexibility and individualization from both the "student" and the faculty supervisor/consultant. The problems and the solutions of this phase of the project are an important part of this presentation. Associated problems of this phase are the scheduling of the ongoing graduate academic work, and the continuing costs of the necessary support services.

In conclusion, the presentation summarizes the quality of collaboration in the project, and offers criteria useful in assuring quality collaboration in a similar effort to increase the availability of special educators in rural schools.

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October 15, 1987 - 2:35 - 3:50 p.m.

Peg Dawson
School Psychologist
Exeter Public Schls
Rfd 1, Box 335
Exeter, NH 03044

Serving Students with Disabilities in Rural and Small Schools: Challenges and Solutions

I have been a practicing school psychologist for 11 years. I have worked in three states and have been employed in suburban, small town, and rural schools. What I am about to say comes from my experience as a school psychologist and from my work with the National Association of School Psychologists.

My first year as a school psychologist coincided with the passage of Public Law 94-142. In the beginning, we all saw this law as being the answer to the needs of handicapped children. No longer could school systems pretend handicapped children did not exist, nor argue that they had no money to provide appropriate services. They began to provide needed services and new programs were established, new teachers hired.

But as time went on, many of us on the "front lines" began to get concerned. Resource room teachers found children were being crowded into their classrooms and their caseloads grew to the point where they could no long do an effective job of meeting needs. The paperwork alone seemed overwhelming. Many of my friends who are special education teachers by training left special education. Some moved into regular classrooms--this excites me, because good special education teachers are often excellent regular classroom teachers. But others left teaching altogether. Seeing my friends leave education saddens me because I know the skills they have and the compassion--and I'm sorry the frustrations in special education have forced them to set aside those skills.

I have watched my friends who are school psychologists become equally frustrated. Those who were practicing before P.L. 94-142 have watched their role in the schools become more and more restricted. They have moved from a role of problem-solver to that of "labeller". In the "old days", we used to be taken aside by teachers or principals, often in the corridors or the teachers' room and asked to help informally with problems as they arose. Now those same teachers feel compelled to refer the same children through a very formal and very time-consuming special education referral process. What we, as school psychologists are asked to do has narrowed and, too often it seems, the solutions have narrowed as well. In most of the schools in which I have worked--rural, small town, or suburban--the resource room has become the treatment of choice. And too often, the only treatment considered. As a result, the resource room has become "the only game in town", and hence more and more children are referred for help and more and more often those children do not resemble the truly handicapped children the law was originally intended to assist. Which has only served, again, to increase the caseloads of teachers and school psychologists, and to increase their frustration proportionately.

But I am glad to say that I and my friends who are school psychologists, resource room teachers, and special education directors in small towns in the northeast corner of the United States are not the only ones who have become frustrated. Throughout the country, as I have read professional journals and newsletters and worked and travelled with the National Association of School Psychologists, I have heard and read others voice their frustrations. I see this as positive, because frustration leads to change. And in the past two years or so I have become encouraged that change can take place. I see us moving towards a new, more flexible, more creative era in the way we think about special education and in the way we provide help for handicapped and at-risk children.

In 1985, the National Association of School Psychologists and the National Coalition of Advocates for Students issued a joint Position Statement entitled, "Advocacy for Appropriate Educational Services for All Children." This statement strongly supported the guarantees to a free and appropriate education, the right to due process, and individualization of educational program accorded to handicapped children by Public Law 94-142. At the same time, the Position Statement addressed some of the serious problems encountered as schools have implemented that law. Of particular concern are the numbers of children inappropriately diagnosed as handicapped and placed in special education because of "(a) a lack of regular education options designed to meet the needs of children with diverse learning styles, (b) a lack of understanding, at times, of diverse cultural and linguistic bakcgrounds, and (c) inadequate measurement technologies which focus on labels for placement rather than providing information for program development."

The Statement went on to argue that labelling children as handicapped when they, in fact, are not is "not a benign action". There are a number of problems with this form of classification system: labels are often irrelevant to instructional needs, categories are often arbitrary, yet, once assigned, may inhibit a more meaningful understanding of the child and his psycho-educational needs, reduced expectations may result from placing children in special education programs, and assessment to determine eligibility is costly and time-consuming and deflects resources from providing effective programming. And finally, special education too often results in "a decreased willingness on the part of regular education...to modify curricula and programs to better meet the diverse needs of all children."

To begin addressing the shortcomings of the special education system, NASP and NCAS proposed "a new national initiative to meet the educational needs of all children". They called for the development and piloting of alternative service delivery systems which would enable regular education to better meet the needs of children with a broad range of learning problems and needs. Recognizing that this would call for increased support systems and retraining of school personnel, NASP and NCAS argued that this approach would "encourage greater independence for children by enabling them to function within the broadest possible environment, and independence for school personnel by providing them with training and support so they can help a wide range of children."

NASP and NCAS argued strongly that while these changes in service delivery take place, it is extremely important that the hard-won rights of handicapped children be preserved. In a companion statement passed last year by both organizations, entitled "Rights Without Labels", NASP and NCAS developed a set of guidelines which can be used to assess whether alternative, non-categorical programs effectively meet the needs of handicapped children. This statement includes a checklist that can be applied to any such program to ensure that the fundamental rights afforded handicapped children by P.L. 94-142 are preserved and that such programs are quality programs that employ effective methodology, individualized aids and services, ongoing training and support for teaching staff, and program evaluation measures enabling comparison to more traditional special education services.

Both these Position Statements are available from the NASP offices and I can provide the address for anyone interested in obtaining copies.

Complementary to the work done by NASP and NCAS, has been Madeleine Will's work within the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. Most people are now very familiar with what is commonly called the "Regular Education Initiative", introduced about a year ago. While acknowledging the very real gains made by P.L. 94-142, Will's report identify a number of obstacles that have arisen unintentionally as the law has been implemented. Those obstacles include a fragmented approach to special education, the creation of a dual system of education, the stigmatizing of students, and placement decisions that cause a rift between schools and parents.

Will reported that many regular and special educators are now finding that children with learning problems can be successfully integrated into regular classrooms and that "there is increasing evidence that it is better academically, socially, and psychologically to educate mildly handicapped children with nonhandicapped children, preferably within the regular classroom."

To enable this to happen, Will proposed a number of changes within regular education, among them creating support systems for teachers, empowering principals to control programs and resources within their buildings, recognizing that children with learning problems may require more instructional time, and developing new instructional approaches to meet the needs of children with learning problems within the regular classroom.

Change can happen from the top down or from the bottom up. Perhaps change occurs most effectively when it travels in both directions simultaneously. That is certainly the way 94-142 was implemented originally. And now that there is a general recognition that modifications are needed in the way special education is perceived and provided, I believe change will again occur in both directions. Encouragement at the Federal level for innovative approaches to special education, as well as revisions in state special education regulations in a number of states are both examples of top down change.

For me, as a "front line" school psychologist, however, it is the bottom up change that I find most exciting. As a practitioner, I knew it was happening out there. I was working hard to make it happen in my own school and my own school system, and I suspected many others were working as hard as I. But, as Chair of the Children's Services Committee of NASP, I wanted to find a way to tap into the change that was happening beyond my town and state: to find out exactly what is going on out there and to develop a means to share with others the innovative things people are doing throughout the country to better meet the needs of handicapped children.

As a result, a year ago my committee began a project of collecting innovative and model programs. Since networks within school psychology are readily available to us, we began by writing letters to state association presidents and writing articles for state and national school psychology newsletters. When possible, we asked newsletter editors to print a "nomination form" whereby readers could nominate programs they thought might fit our needs.

We also went beyond the confines of school psychology when we could: Counterpoint, the newsletter of the National Association of State Directors of Special Education, carried an ad for us. After 10 months of collecting nomination and survey forms, we received descriptions of over 50 programs throughout the country, which we have now compiled in a Directory.

Not all the submissions we received fit our criteria of alternatives to current special education models. We were looking for programs that had any of the following goals:

1. Reducing the numbers of children being inappropriately identified as handicapped.
2. Reducing the restrictiveness of placements for handicapped children.
3. Increasing the range of services and options available to at-risk children in the regular classroom.
4. Increasing cooperation between regular and special education in working with both handicapped and non-handicapped children.

Andrea Canter, a school psychologist with the Minneapolis Public Schools has been chairing the subcommittee responsible for pulling this Directory together, and I must credit her with a lot of organization and hard work on this project. She divided the programs we received into four broad categories, and I would like to discuss the categories of programs and give some examples from each category. The Directory itself should be available for dissemination by the NASP office by the end of October.

Before I discuss the programs themselves, I must present a couple of disclaimers. While we asked that the programs we included in our Directory include either program evaluation results or a description of the evaluation plan if they were too new to have been evaluated formally, we have not asked that these programs show that they have been "successful" in any rigorous way. While it would be nice if they could do that, I think we are in the early stages of developing alternative models, and a main purpose of our directory is to get people thinking about possibilities, rather than necessarily making fully implemented and tested programs available for duplication (although we have a fair number of those, too).

Secondly, when I submitted the proposal to the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium last spring to present at this conference, I had at that point little idea of the exact nature of the programs being submitted to us. I assumed that just as we seemed to be getting good geographical representation, we would get a good representation of programs being implemented in a variety of school settings, including rural and small schools. As I looked over the submissions in preparing this paper, I realized most of the programs probably were not being implemented in schools that fit your definition of rural or small. Not always having enough information to judge the size of the school, I used a rough definition of rural or small town: if I had heard of the town (like Des Moines, Iowa, Great Falls, Montana or Fort Lee, New Jersey), it was probably neither a rural nor a small town setting.

Rather than withdraw my proposal, I would like to discuss the kinds of programs we received, both the ones being implemented in rural and small town settings and those in larger communities. I think most of the programs we received could be implemented in any size school and any size community. Since we are stressing programs in which handicapped children are helped in regular classrooms, we are not talking about highly specialized programs where sufficient numbers of handicapped children falling into any particular category of handicap are needed to make the program feasible. We are talking, for the most part, about programs which regular classroom teachers can implement, albeit with some technical expertise and some assistance from aides or resource personnel.

The first category of programs we have collected we have called "Alternative Referral and Consultation Systems". Most of the programs in this category are pre-referral intervention programs, and they are all designed both to provide immediate and direct assistance to classroom teachers and to reduce the number of inappropriate referrals to special education. In most cases referrals are made to an interdisciplinary team which either, as a group, brainstorms interventions or which assigns a primary consultant to work closely with the teacher to implement and track interventions. The most successful of these programs have some way of measuring the success of the interventions either through curriculum-based assessment procedures or through other behavioral measures. Pre-referral intervention programs have been shown both to significantly refer referrals to special education and to result in increased teacher satisfaction with support services.

A slight variation on this approach is one developed in Arlington Heights, Illinois called the Peer Consultant Program. This model trains regular education teachers to act as consultants to other regular education teachers. Upon request from a teacher, the Peer Consultant works with the classroom teacher to develop an appropriate program for the referral situation.

A very different kind of program, but one which falls in the category of consultation is Project Re-Aim in Iowa. Developed by Dan Reschly at Iowa State University and Jeff Grimes, state School Psychology Consultant, this program provides training to teachers and support staff to better serve children with learning and behavior problems. Participating professionals directly serve about 3000 students in urban, small town and rural communities in Iowa. Re-Aim provides training modules in three areas: behavioral consultation, curriculum-based assessment, and referral question-consultative decision-making. Each module consists of a two-day workshop followed by eight weeks of supervised practice. The training is intended to improve pre-assessment interventions, special education eligibility evaluations, regular and special education programming and interventions, re-evaluations, and rate of success in the transition from special to regular education placements.

The next broad category of model program we have called Alternative Instructional/Management Systems. These include a wide variety of programs ranging from comprehensive management systems to more specific systems aimed at particular kinds of classroom situations or restricted to specific content areas.

Perhaps best known and most widely implemented of these programs is ALEM, the Adaptive Learning Environment Model. Developed originally by Dr. Margaret Wang, now at Temple University in Philadelphia, the goal of ALEM is that the instruction of all students, including most students identified as handicapped, be accomplished in the regular classroom. This is done both by adapting the curriculum to meet individual needs and by the collaborative efforts of regular education teachers, Chapter I, and special education staff working together within the regular classroom. The major program components are: 1) a classroom organizational support system; 2) an adaptive curriculum design; 3) an instructional management system; 4) systematic staff development; and 5) family involvement. ALEM has been extensively evaluated with impressive results both in terms of academic gains of both handicapped and non-handicapped learners and in terms of self-concept and social-personal growth of handicapped learners.

Another model, with which I am very familiar in New Hampshire is called the Reading/Writing Process. This is not a special education model per se, having been developed by Dr. Don Graves and his colleagues at the University of New Hampshire, but it is an individualized and very exciting approach to language arts instruction that lends itself very well to mainstreamed instruction of mildly handicapped students. I have seen this program "in action" and have been very impressed with what I have seen. To see moderately learning disabled children both willingly writing and eagerly sharing what they have written with nonhandicapped peers is a memorable experience. And since the reading program incorporates children reading at many different levels within one classroom, this component, too, is ideally suited to handicapped and at-risk students.

Another promising program combines the efforts of regular and special education teachers at the secondary level. This program comes from Kansas City, Missouri and is called a "Class Within a Class". In this program, handicapped students are served in the regular classroom by special education teachers who work collaboratively with regular classroom teachers. The regular classroom teacher retains primary responsibility for course content while the special education teacher is responsible for monitoring progress, providing modified materials, consulting with the regular classroom teacher, and reinforcing learning strategies or study skills.

Other management systems included in our directory are ones which enable teachers to use measurement procedures to monitor progress and to make decisions about exiting special education students. Examples include the Precision Teaching Project in Great Falls Montana, and the Data Based Decision Making Model in Moundsview, Minnesota.

The third category included in our directory is a diverse category called Alternative Interventions. These programs are more focused and less comprehensive than the previous category, but in general are either designed to be implemented within the regular classroom to to enable handicapped students to function more adequately within the regular classroom. These include, among others, peer tutoring models, study skills or cognitive training models and social skills training models. One example is a program written up in Counterpoint last year entitled the "Interboro Outdoor Education Program". This program is implemented in Prospect Park, Pennsylvania and was originally begun as an outdoor education program for handicapped 5th and 6th graders. Then regular education students were incorporated into the program using a "reverse mainstreaming model", and the program leaders now feel that the chance to interact in social situations outside of school with non-handicapped peers is a vital part of the program.

Another program, in Speedway, Indiana, is called "Study Teams and Starter Notes". This program combines a cooperative learning structure to integrate handicapped learners with a study skills training approach. Another approach that focuses on study skills is the Learning Strategies approach developed by Don Deshler at the University of Kansas. This program, being used in Wilton, Connecticut among other places, teaches learning disabled students the study skills or learning strategies necessary to function successfully in mainstreamed classes.

The final category included in our directory we've called Alternative Preschool Programs. There are many programs for handicapped preschoolers, and many of these programs describe themselves as preventive. We have chosen to include in our directory those programs which actively integrate, at the preschool level, handicapped with non-handicapped peers, and I think we have some exciting examples of that. For instance, a program called "Jowonio: The Learning Place" is located in Syracuse, New York. This is a preschool program in which emotionally handicapped preschoolers are integrated in a classroom setting with non-handicapped kindergarteners. A third of each class is handicapped, the rest is not. The classroom teaching teams are supported by specialists, and while the curriculum is developmental and appropriate for the non-handicapped students, additional goals and objectives are developed for the handicapped students, often based on the philosophy of Developmental Therapy, an teaching approach developed for emotionally handicapped youngsters.

Lest it be thought that this kind of program is only applicable to urban settings or larger school districts, Hampton University in rural Virginia has developed the "Hampton University Mainstreaming Project". This program has two components, a model intervention program and an outreach program. The intervention program fully integrates children with developmental delays into nursery, preschool, and kindergarten programs with non-handicapped peers. The outreach program provides training and technical assistance needed to implement the intervention program. It assists target agencies in replicating model components, prepares awareness, instructional and training materials, and helps coordinate services among state, regional, and national groups.

This is just a small sample of the programs included in our directory. And I am certain that our directory includes only a small sample of the programs that are currently underway throughout the country. I had another purpose in presenting at this meeting besides sharing what we have come up with. Already we are at work on a revised and expanded directory which will come out a year from now. And we need your help. I think rural programs are under-represented in the current directory. While it is likely that the programs we have can be easily translated to rural settings, it is possible that people in the audience know of programs designed for and ideally suited to rural schools. We would like to include those programs in next year's directory.

I am optimistic about what I see happening in special education at the grassroots level. We are moving beyond frustration and into the realm of creative problem solving. The solutions we are coming up with excite me. And the beneficiaries of these solutions are the children in America's schools--not just the handicapped children, but the non-handicapped as well. Because what we are doing is increasing the range of options for all children--and all children benefit.

Peg Dawson, Ed.D.

October 15, 1987 - 2:35 - 3:50 p.m.

Wayne Fox
Director, Center
for Developmental
Disabilities
Univ. of Vermont
Burlington, VT

EDUCATING STUDENTS WITH SEVERE HANDICAPS IN THEIR LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN RURAL VERMONT: THE HOMECOMING MODEL

Vermont, like other rural States, has developed a regional special education service delivery model for educating its students with severe handicaps. Each regional program provides students with special educational and related services, including physical therapy, occupational therapy, speech therapy, and psychological services. Unlike other rural states, Vermont's regional programs are housed in host public schools, rather than in separate or otherwise segregated facilities. With few exceptions, all of Vermont's school-age students are educated in public schools with their non-handicapped peers.

Through efforts to improve special education and related services for these students with severe handicaps, nine **Best Educational Practices** were identified. These **Best Educational Practices** included:

- Age-appropriate Placement
- Social Integration
- Community-based Training
- Functional Curricula Development
- Parent Involvement
- Integrated Delivery of Related Services
- Data-based Programming
- Transition Planning
- Program Evaluation

As efforts to assist regional special education programs to implement these best practices were initiated, it quickly became apparant that, **Best practices for student's with severe handicaps could only be implemented**

within the regular education program in the student's local public school.

The **Homecoming** model was developed to return students with severe handicaps to their local public schools. The Homecoming model involved establishing a collaborative team of regular and special educators within each school with the responsibility for planning the transition of the student with severe handicaps from the regional program. An educational specialist for the severely handicapped provided technical assistance to the team as they developed each student's educational program. The student's parents were an integral part of the team.

This **shared responsibility** among parents, teachers, administrators and special educators resulted in 51 students with severe handicaps returning to 22 local public schools in rural Vermont as part of the Homecoming project. In addition, another 24 students were prevented from being sent away to a regional program. All of these students received their education in the regular classrooms of their local schools with support from the local planning teams and itinerant special educators and related services providers. This model has been endorsed by the Vermont State Board of Education and is fully operational in four of Vermont's 60 Supervisory Unions. An additional twelve superintendencies are initiating the Homecoming model this year.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 14, 1987

10:00 - 11:00 AM

Dealing with Rural ED/GT's: When to Intervene, When to Refer and To Whom

C.R. (Bob) Davis
Kay S. Bull

Oklahoma State University

Presented at Creative Collaborations:
Setting the pace in Rural and
Small School Education.
The Second Annual Rural and Small School Conference,
Arlington, VA, October, 1987.

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Dealing with Rural ED/GT's: When to intervene, when to refer and to whom.

You don't have to be gifted to be crazy or vise versa, but it helps! This seems to be the result of our examination of the literature related to emotional disturbance and intellectual giftedness.

In this presentation we would like to try to do the following: (1) Define intellectual giftedness and emotional disturbance as concepts; (2) Explicate some of the factors in growing up rural and/or gifted that may cause emotional disturbances; (3) Examine some school related sources of emotional disturbances for gifted children; (4) Describe when teachers should intervene and when they should refer ED/GT's and finally, (5) Provide an example of an appropriate referral process for ED/GT's.

Who Are The Gifted?

The intellectually gifted are those who: (1) Score in the top 3-5% on intelligence tests (remember that different tests tap different kinds of abilities); (2) Score in the top 3-5% on achievement tests, composite scores (remember that all achievement tests are not the same); (3) Those who exhibit levels of learning competence; (4) Those who exhibit high levels of abstract thinking. Stankowski (1978) provides a cynical division of giftedness into three groupings: (a) Those who have their hands up first and know all the right answers; (b) Those who always finish their work and then proceed to create havoc; and (c) Those who are clever enough to be at the bottom of the

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class when they want to be.

Note that according to these definitions the intellectually gifted child: (1) May not be a high performer; (2) May not have good social skills as defined by teachers; (3) May not be physically adept, etc. The only requirement for intellectual giftedness is for the child to possess the criterion score(s) that a particular state or district requires.

Who Is Identified As Emotionally Disturbed

The term emotionally disturbed is defined differently by various professional groups. The principal difference is the number of students who will be included in the category by defining the term broadly or narrowly.

The United States Department of Education restricts the group of students who might be identified as emotionally disturbed by using the term "seriously emotionally disturbed".

> "Seriously emotionally disturbed " is defined as follows:
> (i) The term means a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree, which adversely affects educational performance:
> (A) An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors;
> (B) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers;
> (C) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances;
> (D) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or
> (E) A tendency to develop physical symptoms of fears associated with personal or school problems.
> (ii) The term includes children who are schizophrenic. The term does not include children who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that they are seriously emotionally disturbed.(34 CFR 300.5)

Special attention should be given to the brief but important clause "which adversely affects educational performance". This

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clause is a limiting factor for gifted students.

Other terms which have been utilized to describe students with these problems are "emotionally disturbed", "behavior disordered", "personal and social adjustment" and "children in conflict".(Bower,1960; Maes, 1966; Quay, Morse, and Cutler, 1966; Newcomer, 1980; and Reinert, 1980). Some of these terms tend to correspond to a larger population. Reinert (1980) writes of four subcategories within his broader view of "children in conflict" as follows:

1. Acting-out behaviors (hitting, aggressive, disruptive behaviors)
2. Withdrawing behaviors (absence of speech, thumb-sucking, restricted behavior)
3. Defensive behaviors (lying, cheating, avoiding tasks)
4. Disorganized behaviors (autistic behaviors, out of touch with reality)

These subgrouping are generally accepted; however, the point at which the behaviors are considered different or deviant enough to lead to identification as emotionally disturbed or one of the other terms remains discrepant. In discussing behavior disorders Kelly, Bullock, and Dykes (1974) classify the population they describe as:

1. Mild behavioral disorders - Children or youth with behavior disorders who can be helped adequately by the regular classroom teacher and/or other school resource personnel through periodic counseling and/or short term individual attention and instruction
2. Moderate behavior disorders - Children or youth with behavioral disorders who can remain at their assigned school but require intensive help from one or more specialists (i.e., mental health clinics, diagnostic centers)
3. Severe behavioral disorders - Children or youth with behavioral disorders who require assignment to a special class or special school

This classification may be useful when looking at who and how many might be included in the group. The numbers seem to

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increase dramatically with the inclusion of the moderate and mild levels. Bower (1960) says less than one percent of the students in school require intensive intervention. While ten percent of the general school population require some professional help in their twelve year programs of regular study. The extreme figures come from Glidewell and Swallow (1968) suggesting that between two and sixty-nine percent are maladjusted. The Federal Government has estimated that two percent of the school population may be "seriously emotionally disturbed" under P.L. 94-142; however, the actual number served is far less than one percent.(Kauffman,1981)

Boys and blacks are identified more often proportionately than are girls and whites according to Kelly (1977). Boys are placed in special education programs for emotional disturbance six to ten times more often than are girls, while black students are present two to one over white students in elementary classes discussed by Kelly (1977).

The answer to the question of who is identified as emotionally disturbed, is a group of students who are by far more male than female, who are proportionately more black than white who individually are different enough in their social and/or emotional behavior to demand special attention from school administration for their education. According to a current study by these authors gifted students are proportionately under represented in the population of emotionally disturbed students as a result of the federal definition which requires that the

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emotional problem adversely affects educational performance. The Court has given meaning to what constitutes an adverse affect to a child's education in "Rowley" a gifted student was not eligible for special education because the child could achieve to the norm, or a letter grade of "C", without special education. The student in Rowley was hearing impaired not emotionally disturbed, but the precedent is clear for every category under special education law. Previous studies reported by Kauffman (1981) almost uniformly have found the gifted population under represented in classes for the emotionally disturbed. This does not mean that students identified as gifted do not or will not have emotional problems or, as suggested by Reinert (1980), be a child in conflict.

Conflict and Its Causes

Conflict is usually defined in terms of two, or more, desires which lead the subject in opposing directions at the same time. This can happen when the student wants two positive events, when the student wants to avoid two aversive events and when the student is drawn to one even while trying to avoid another event (Miller, 1959). Many children experience the avoidance side of an approach-voidance conflict when participataion in an activity is voluntary and nonrewarding. In this case the child will leave it for alternative activities. In compulsory situations, such as are found in school settings, the child and the teacher have few alternatives. They must develop coping mechanisms to handle the stress which is induced between their personal needs and the demands of the situation (Whitmore,

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1980).

There are a variety of methods which are used to deal with conflict situations, according to Horney (1945) and Merton (1949). These include: (1) Conformity (acceptance of the group goals and the ways in which they are developed). The child suppresses the talent but feels an underlying need to express it. This conflict can lead to low self-esteem, external locus of control and high fear of failure. In the extreme it can lead to paralized perfectionism. (2) Withdrawal or retreatism. Anger because of the conflict turns inward and leads to fantasy, day dreaming, etc. Children who adopt this approach are usually shy and nonassertive. Long term disuse of abilities can lead to intellectual retardation and psychotic tendencies (Des Jarlais, 1972). (3) Rebellion. Students in this category are usually labeled as socially maladjusted, personality directed at others, usually teachers. These students exhibit low self-esteem, frustration, hostility to time constraints and rigid expectations and procedures. They generally dislike school.

Rural Life and Emotional Problems

Most people think that rural settings are the most advantageous environments for child rearing, which may be true; but rural living does present some unique problems particularly for the gifted student. The aspect of gifted in the rural setting will be address later, so let us view the problem of emotional disturbance in the rural environment.

Absences of Peers and Role Models: The rural environment can be limiting by the lack of developmental opportunities one of

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which is the establishment of relationships with other children. The federal definition for emotional disturbance lists "an inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers" as one of the factors in being emotionally disturbed. Finding a fellow student who shares enough interest to support a relationship can be difficult for the average students in rural or remote areas and almost impossible for the gifted.

Role models can be a similar problem. Children require models for appropriate behavior and development. The rural environment is becoming virtually void of professionals. As specialities within fields ,and consolidation of resources continue to be the trend in every profession the rural areas are left without this example for youth. Even models within the home can be limited by the trend in family breakups finding its way into rural life.

Lack of Early Intervention: Many of the students who experience emotional problems are aided to early resolutions by some of the professional mentioned as leaving or have never been present in the rural environment. This lack of early intervention can result in children requiring more involved services such as placement in special education programs for the emotionally disturbed.

School Practices Which Contribute to Conflict for the Gifted Child

Age grading: The practice of age grading assumes that each child at a given age will function at the same level as every other child in every area of learning. This practice creates

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boredom, frustration and bad feelings which can result in a mismatch severe enough to be considered handicapping for some children. Any system that uses strict age grading without provisions for differentiation, individualization or acceleration promotes conflict for the gifted child, (Gallagher 1975; Newland 1976; Perrone & Male 1981; Sellin & Birch 1981; Terman 1954; and Whitmore 1980).

Common Curriculum: The problem of the common curriculum and the concommitant lack of differentiated procedures for the gifted goes hand-in-glove with age grading. Everyone gets the same educational diet at the same pace, with no provisions for those who function at a different level or a different learning rate. The use of the common curriculum, and in many states the adoption of texts based on this curriculum, limits the availability of resources, structures the teaching environment and makes it unlikely that appropriate provisions will be made for the gifted in any systematic manner. The general low level of intellectual stimulation found in most regular classrooms promotes conflict and leads to reduced intellectual progress, (Cushenberg & Howell 1974; Gowan, Khatena, & Torrance 1979; Hildereth 1966; Newland 1976; Raph, Goldberg, & Passow, 1966; Sellin & Birch 1980; Steward, 1981, Whitmore, 1980; Zilli, 1971).

Manipulation Through Threat and Reward: Schools generally, are run on the autocratic or theory "X" management model. The principal is in charge of the school and the teacher is in charge of the classroom. What they say goes. Gifted children are frequently an independent thinkers, self-sufficient,

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nonconformists, and wanting to follow their own drummers. This can cause them to run afoul of the system. They are threatened with punishment unless they conform and are offered rewards if they do. Some rebel, become aggressive or withdraw. Others conform to get the rewards. Recent literature reviews (Brophy, 1981) however, show that rewards are relatively ineffective in motivating high ability students and, in fact, reduce motivation and performance. Any extremely structured system which manipulates through coercion abilities promotes external locus of control in students reduces their creative, if not their intellectual abilities. In this kind of structure is conflict almost inevitably occurs, (Brophy, 1981; Perrone & Male, 1981; Sellin & Birch, 1980; and Whitmore, 1980).

Rural and Gifted: Some Possible Problems

Rural areas are usually more conservative, insular and resistant to innovation than are urban areas. At least in the rural everyone knows you and it is hard to be too different. This can cause problems for some gifted childrden. There are problems related to ethnicity, family of origin, etc. Table 1 lists some situations in which growing up rural would place the learner in conflict thereby potentially leading to disturbance.

Insert Table 1 About Here

It has been argued, (Bull, 1987), that being rural is not worse than being urban, JUST DIFFERENT. This assessment is, we believe, valid. However Table 1 indicates some of the ways in

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which these differences can impact the gifted child toward conflict and potential emotional problems.

Intervention: A Proactive Stance

From a proactive viewpoint teachers who wish to defuse conflict must set an educational climate which is conducive to the development of giftedness and they must intervene to prevent the development of emotional problems. Table 2 provides several ideas for developing an excepting and supportive environment. If this type of an environment is developed the chance of the students developing emotional problems related to work in school will be reduced. Table 3 provides some ideas on positive interventions by teachers which support the development of giftedness and foster positive emotional experience. These teacher responses and actions can be taken with all children, and particularly, with gifted children without the benefit of additional training.

Insert Table 2 About Here

Insert Table 3 About Here

When and Where to Get Additional Help

You may feel as though you are the only hope for your troubled, gifted student. You may be the most important but hopefully you are not alone. There are at least two times in which you should look beyond your own door. The first and scariest is when a student gives an indication of taking their own life. Quick and positive action must be taken. You should

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become aware of resources in your area that respond to this traumatic need. If you are having trouble identifying these resources, call your state department of mental health, county health department or a local physician. Any of these resources should assist you; but, it is a good idea to have this data on hand before it is necessary. You may want to attend a workshop on suicide prevention and learn what questions to ask to determine whether the child is after attention or is in serious peril. Any indication should be treated with concern until it is decided otherwise. The other time to seek additional help is when a troubled student is no longer making progress and/or your frustration level is just short of boiling. In either case your first effort should be to gain assistance for yourself to allow you to carry on if possible. Additional direct counseling is great but your relationship with the student is very often the key to the student's emotional improvement. Some gifted students do require special class placement for the emotionally disturbed or even institutionalization or hospitalization in the most extreme situations. If you feel that you and some limited additional support are insufficient then request the proper forms to initiate the referral process. You should be able to describe the specific behaviors which result in you wanting to relieve yourself of the student and it is most important to be able to state the kinds of remedial steps you have attempted to this point. Special education is only to be utilized when all other adaptations have been exhausted and it is determined that the child indeed qualifies.

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Conclusion

In conclusion, we find that severe emotional disturbance under special education law is less likely to occur in the gifted population. However, from the viewpoint of conflict more gifted children are in conflict than are regular children. The outcomes are not promising. Services are needed but the law does not provide. Implementing a proactive intervention strategy with a supportive climate may be the best that we can do until the federal government recognizes that conflict too threatens learning and the appropriate development of children.

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Table 1

Situations Leading to Conflicting Rural Settings

Educational poverty or lack of resources which are needed to meet student needs (De Young, 1987).

Female student wants to go to college and it is considered inappropriate.

Female student wants to study hard science/health and far exceeds both the teacher and peers.

Limited educational/intellectual contacts.

Demands for multiple role performance (Barker & Gump, 1964), in areas of low interest.

No peer group of high level college bound thinkers.

Goals opposite of rural setting, which are maintenance of stable/conservative educational, religious and social life (Kleinsasser, 1986).

Desire, particularly in females, to leave the rural area.

Self-perception of marginality (Manaster & Powell, 1983).

Social introversion conflicts with multiple role demands.

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Table 2

Setting the Climate for Gifted Learning

Provide a psychologically secure environment.

Be non-judgmental about student products.

Accept student's values and standards

Allow them to succeed regularly.

Provide challenging and interesting learning activities.

Admit errors openly.

Be honest, open and supportive at all times.

Encourage student self-discovery, awareness and understanding.

Table 3

Positive Interventions by Teachers

Help students see themselves as positive people.

Care about and respect each student as a peson.

Have open communication.

Focus on positive aspects of the student.

Help students develop their own goals.

Treat mistakes as learning experiences.

Teach social skills so that they can get along with others when they want to.

Help students learn to self-evaluate.

Help liberate students from oppressive and unrealistic external and selfexpectations.

Group gifted students together so that they can interact.

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CHESAPEAKE COLLEGE

VALUE ADDED ARTICULATION

WITH

PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Presented at the

Second Annual

National Rural and Small Schools

Conference

October 14, 1987

INTRODUCTION

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President

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Associate Professor of
History/Political Scienc

Mr. James Distler
Associate Professor and
Coordinator of Engineering Technologies

Mrs. Rebecca Rader
Associate Dean for
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Chesapeake College is a small rural comprehensive community college established in 1965 to serve five counties on the Eastern Shore of Maryland. The service region served by Chesapeake College comprises 23% of the total geographic area of the State of Maryland; however, the service area population of approximately 130,000 accounts for only 3% of the population of the State.

The College's main campus is located in the geographic center of the service area. It is a two-hour drive from the campus to any of the north/south extremities of its service area. In order to be successful in servicing this wide-spread territory, the College has had to be innovative in all areas of its activities including service to the communities, recruitment, curriculum, and retention. Although the College has only 1224 FTE this year (total hours divided by 30) with a head count of approximately 2200 credit students and 2200 non-credit students, the institution has grown over 300% during the last ten years. The current projection is for the college to grow about 3% each year.

Each semester the College offers courses in all of the public high schools in its five-county service area and at approximately 50 off-campus locations. The College has worked diligently to gain the support of the officials in the counties within its service area. In addition to working with county officials, a monthly luncheon is held with the public school superintendents from the five counties to discuss common problems and to determine how the College can be of assistance. Through this effort, the institution has become the focal point for many activities which add a quality that would otherwise not be present.

The Arts Contest, Social Science Fair, and Occupational Skills Expo are annual competitive events which enhance the high school curriculum and facilitate program articulation efforts with each of the school systems. Regional College Night represents a cooperative opportunity for college staff and their counterparts in the public schools to collaborate and share planning responsibilities. Students benefit from the opportunity to gain information about postsecondary study and career options.

The forum will provide detailed information about each of the events to illustrate the additional value these cooperative efforts extend to the educational environment in our service delivery area.

VALUE ADDED THROUGH STUDENT PARTICIPATION

ARTS CONTEST
SOCIAL SCIENCE FAIR
OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS EXPO

Each year Chesapeake College sponsors an Arts Contest, a Social Science Fair, and an Occupational Skills Expo for the high school students in the college's five support counties. The programs are designed (1) to recognize the creative skills and academic achievements of students and (2) to establish the role of the College as a sponsoring agency in developing successful cooperative efforts among the five public school systems in promoting the arts, the social sciences and vocational education. Each event focuses community attention on the college as a center for enhancing the study of the arts, the social sciences, and vocational education.

The Arts Contest was established in 1975 with competition for cash prizes in visual arts, music, drama, and creative writing. Over the years the contest has grown so large that the number of categories and prizes has been increased and a limit on the number of entries imposed. Presently, the event is limited to grades 10 through 12 and the maximum number of participants limited to approximately 500.

The Social Science Fair was created in 1978 and offers competition in such events as master quizzes, public speaking, scholastic series, simulated press conference, essays, cartoons, and displays. Events have been added and deleted in response to high school faculty suggestions and student participation in the events each year. The event is open to grades 9 through 12 and the number of participants is not limited. Over 550 students participate each year.

The first annual Occupational Skills Expo was held this year on February 13. This event attracted 329 students from the area high schools. Twenty-one skills categories and five leadership categories of competition were offered. The skills categories were: masonry, welding, general auto mechanics, typing, shorthand, health occupations, small engine repair, child care, sales and marketing, carpentry, electricity, electronics, drafting, horticulture, food preparation, cosmetology, and accounting. The leadership skill events included prepared speaking, extemporaneous speaking, parliamentary procedures, job interviewing, and a skill demonstration. The event is open to students in grades 10 through 12. Businesses and industries donated most of the materials necessary for completing each event.

Students from ten area public and private high schools now look forward to competition in the Arts Contest, the Social Science Fair and the Occupational Skills Expo. School superintendents have given 100% cooperation in implementing these activities. High school teachers and school board administrators are most supportive of the program. The college has been on a four-day extended work week for a number of years and these events are held on Fridays permitting use of the entire campus.

The best way to make clear the nature of these events is to provide some specific details. The following information illustrates the extent to which these activities enrich the high school curriculum and promote faculty and community participation.

PURPOSE OF THE CONTESTS

The general purpose of the three events is to:

1. give students an opportunity to exhibit their academic and vocational skills; to express their thoughts and ideas verbally and in writing; and to share their unique talents and abilities with students from other schools.

2. afford each participating school an opportunity to analyze educational endeavors and to promote improved academic and vocational education opportunities.

3. motivate teachers and students to a higher level of enthusiasm in academic and occupational education.

4. provide an educational experience for students as part of their academic preparation and for their future careers in a selected vocation.

5. provide an opportunity for academic and vocational skills to be demonstrated on a local, competitive level.

BENEFITS FOR THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The benefits for the high schools are:

1. academic and occupational skills competition among the high schools.

2. high school student recognition for academic and occupational skills accomplishments.

3. further study and involvement in the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational Education.

4. innovative learning tool for high school faculty in their Arts, Social Sciences, and Vocational classes.

5. greater sensitivity to the study of the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational studies.

6. strengthened student understanding of how they fit into society.

7. high school teacher recognition for encouragement and support of the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational Education.

BENEFITS FOR THE COMMUNITY

The benefits for the community are:

1. opportunity for the business sector to participate in college-sponsored programs.

2. opportunity for citizens to visit the campus.

3. awareness of programs of study.

4. new insights into and appreciation of the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational Education.

BENEFITS FOR THE COLLEGE

The benefits for the college are:

1. increased student interest in the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational programs.

2. increased interest by students who might not attend college otherwise.

3. faculty involvement in student recruitment.

4. greater consideration by students of the value of the Arts, the Social Sciences, and Vocational Education.

5. perception among the high schools as the primary outlet for academic and occupational skills competition.

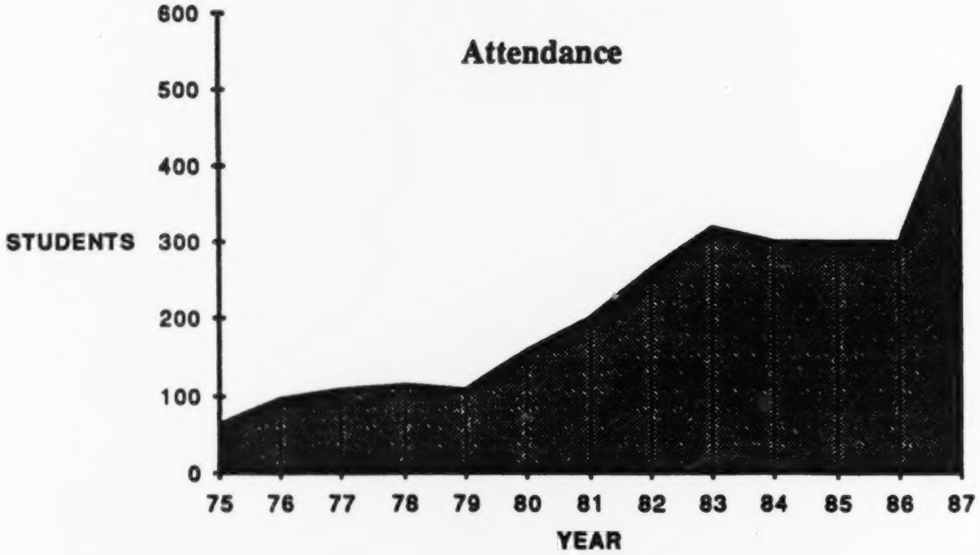
6. demonstration of faculty commitment to community service.

FACULTY INVOLVEMENT IN THE CONTESTS

Faculty are involved in:

1. designing competitive events.
2. judging events.
3. interacting with high school teachers.
4. greeting students, high school coordinators, administrators, and community citizens.
5. arranging for tables, rooms, and appropriate equipment, and ordering awards and prizes.

ARTS CONTEST

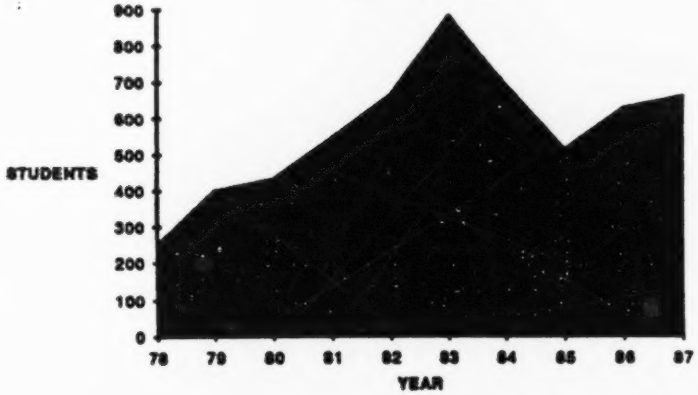


Budget History

Expense Item	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Prize Money	300	300	300	300	300
Postage	15	15	15	15	15
Duplicating	20	20	20	20	20
Dinner				120	334.12
Gifts	25	25	25	25	25
Total College Expenses	$360	$360	$360	$480	$694.12
Recruitment Cost Per Student	$ 1.13	$ 1.20	$ 1.20	$ 1.60	$ 1.37

SOCIAL SCIENCE FAIR

Attendance



STUDENTS WHO ATTENDED AND SUBSEQUENTLY ENROLLED AT CHESAPEAKE COLLEGE:

1984	1985	1986
13.2%	16.9%	17.3%

Budget History

Expense Item	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Prize Money	$360.00	360.00	360.00	330.00	335.00	165.00	
Awards	53.35	64.96	148.65	172.60	216.00	244.51	418.00
Postage	30.00	30.00	30.00	30.00	27.22	10.00	12.00
Duplicating	65.00	65.00	65.00	30.00	33.30	60.00	50.00
Dinners						120.00	334.12
Travel					75.00	75.00	30.00
Honorarium				50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00
Total College Expenses	$508.35	$519.96	$603.65	$687.60	$736.52	$554.68	$903.12
Recruitment Cost Per Student	$.93	$.78	$.68	$.99	$1.43	$.88	$1.37

OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS EXPO

Attendance

1987

329

Budget

Expense Item	
Administrative Cost	$ 450.00
Prize Money	200.00
Awards	650.00
Postage	70.00
Duplicating	300.00
Meals	1,250.00
Travel	90.00
Contest Supplies	3,800.00
TOTAL	$6,810.00
Business & Industry Contribution	$5,310.00
Total College Expenses	$1,500.00

College Recruitment Cost Per Student $4.56

ARTS CONTEST,
SOCIAL SCIENCE FAIR,
OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS EXPO
VALUE ADDED SUMMARY

The charts make it sound like a lot of work for the faculty. It is. However, the contests serve both the idealistic goals of promoting awareness of humanistic values and demonstrating occupational skills competency, and the practical goal of recruiting students for liberal arts programs and vocational programs.

In most high schools, the only inter-scholastic competition is in athletics, and there is no chance for the best history student or cosmetology student to become a hero by winning a prize in competition with students from other schools or for the English department to claim the most outstanding creative writing student in five counties. The recognition provided by the contests helps to raise the value placed on the arts, social sciences and vocational programs by the high school students.

The arts, social sciences, and vocational programs at the College are also enhanced by their clear statements of the significance of humanistic achievement, occupational skills competency, and by the increased public awareness of their existence. Both high school students and their parents begin to think of Chesapeake College as a place to go for courses in the arts, social sciences, and vocational occupations. With tuition rising rapidly in the private sector, parents whose children plan professional careers requiring from two to eight years of schooling may well decide that the inexpensive community college is the place to start if the programs are perceived to be good.

The Arts Contest, the Social Science Fair and the Occupational Skills Expo provide opportunities for college and high school teachers and administrators to see much of the outstanding work done by local high school students. By extending the faculty beyond the college classroom to work cooperatively with the high school faculty to recognize outstanding high school achievement in this work, Chesapeake College makes clear the commitment of the institution and the public school systems to excellence in the arts, social sciences and vocational education.

VALUE ADDED THROUGH ACCESS TO INFORMATION

REGIONAL COLLEGE NIGHT

At the suggestion of the public school superintendents of the five county area served by Chesapeake College, the institution sponsored and hosted the first Regional College Night in 1983. Many of the schools had sponsored their own college fairs and found it difficult to attract prestigious institutions. The event is held every October.

This annual event accomplishes the following objectives:

1. provides high school and college students, and parents the opportunity to meet with representatives of colleges/universities, proprietary schools, nursing schools and the military all in one location.
2. provides high school and college students and parents the opportunity to explore financial aid resources to support attendance at postsecondary institutions.
3. provides representatives of colleges/universities, proprietary schools, nursing schools and the military the opportunity to maximize their exposure and recruitment efforts.
4. assists high school guidance counselors with providing students the opportunity to meet with a broader range of college/university, proprietary school, nursing school and military representatives.
5. recruits students for Chesapeake College.

Cooperative planning efforts between secondary guidance counselors and the college begin in the spring and end with a summative evaluation process in November.

Representatives from each of the ten public and private secondary schools contribute suggestions regarding schools to invite, event layout, transportation, program and publicity. Secondary representatives follow through by distributing announcements, posters, and programs, arranging transportation, meeting with students prior to the event to discuss college selection, financial aid resources, and career decision-making, accompanying students, and evaluating the event.

In addition to funding the event, college personnel issue invitations, track responses, arrange for all promotional materials and advertising, develop the event program, provide physical plant facilities and arrangements, host the hospitality room for representatives and school officials, and provide college admissions information and financial aid advisement.

The Regional College Night has established a firm track record with both students, secondary schools, and attending institutions. Initially attracting 75 recruiters the first year, that number rose to well over 100 in 1986 even with a $30.00 fee charged that year to offset rising costs attributed to increased attendance.

Evaluation plays a vital role in future planning. In addition to formal and informal evaluation instruments completed by planning committee members, students, and institutional representatives, 1986 was the first year the College's Marketing Committee conducted a survey among those attending College Night.

The following information will be utilized for future planning:

1. attendance was highest for high school seniors (51%), followed by juniors (27%), sophomores (17%), and other (5% - parents and current college students)

2. most sought-after colleges were identified

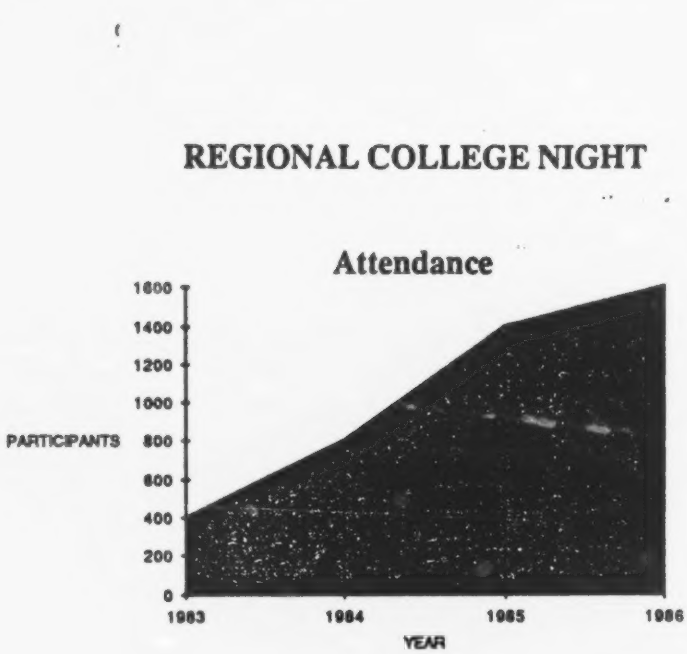
3. interest in Chesapeake College programs of study was determined

4. numbers of students from each school were obtained

Additional information follows illustrating how the multi-dimensional, cooperative efforts between the college and the area's public school systems enrich the quality of the area's educational environment for students.

REGIONAL COLLEGE NIGHT

Attendance



Budget History

Expense Item	1983	1984	1985	1986
Duplicating (internal - letters, flyers, signs, posters)	$ 590	$ 630	$ 690	$ 217
Duplicating (external)	-	-	-	760
Postage	68	72	88	125
Table Rental	450	625	550	575
Advertising	400	721	1,305	900
Telephone	42	50	83	200
Miscellaneous Supplies	73	99	190	103
Hospitality Room	-	200	252	475
Graphics	-	-	-	275
Financial Aid Program	-	-	500	700
TOTAL	$1,623	$2,397	$3,658	$4,330
Exhibitor Fee	0	0	0	$3,090
Total College Expenses				$1,240
College Cost Per Participant	$4.06	$3.00	$2.61	$.78

REGIONAL COLLEGE NIGHT
VALUE ADDED SUMMARY

I. Collaborative Efforts Between Public School and College Personnel

A. Idea originated from a meeting between public school superintendents and College's President.

B. Planning committee is comprised of high school and college representatives.

C. Evaluation is obtained from the planning committee, students and institution representatives.

II. Value Added to High School Curriculum

A. Students are encouraged to think in terms of high school preparation for college programs of study.

B. Counselors and teachers meet with students to discuss college selection criteria, financial aid resources, and career decision-making.

III. Program Articulation

A. Interaction and discussion between faculty, guidance counselors and college personnel regarding specific programs of study are encouraged.

B. College faculty are available to discuss their liberal arts and vocational areas of study.

IV. Regional Cooperation Among Public School Systems and Postsecondary Institutions

A. Guidance counselors from all service area schools have the opportunity to meet and discuss strategies for attaining common objectives.

B. The reputation of Chesapeake College among other postsecondary institutions is enhanced.

VALUE ADDED WITH PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS

CONCLUSION

The Value Added Articulation programs that Chesapeake College has developed offer five advantages for high school and college educators. First , these programs attempt to strengthen the viability of the associate degree career and transfer programs of study by attempting to attract talented high school students. Second, the programs demonstrate the College's commitment to participate in cooperative programs with area high schools. Third, increased interaction between high school and college educators is encouraged. Fourth, the programs are designed to heighten high school student interest in attending college following graduation; and fifth, to increase the number of academically gifted students who attend Chesapeake College. If students perceive the programs of study that Chesapeake College offers to be relevant to the attainment of their educational objectives, they will be more likely to enroll. By involving students in the programs outlined in this presentation, the likelihood of their selecting Chesapeake College as the institution to begin their post-secondary education is enhanced.

The cooperative efforts that have been developed between Chesapeake College and the area county boards of education have increased and improved the image of the institution. By developing value added articulation programs, Chesapeake College has demonstrated its commitment to work with the area high schools and boards of education in developing and in offering cooperative experiences that enhance the academic preparation of high school students.

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DESIGNING EFFECTIVE RURAL SMALL SCHOOL COLLABORATIVES

Rural small schools are experiencing what many regard to be the greatest crisis in the post-World War II era. Changes in enrollment patterns, new fiscal constraints, new state-sponsored school improvement initiatives, an acceleration of state control, a press for structural changes in the state system of elementary-secondary education, the adoption of some form of family choice, and a decline in the number of traditional school support interest groups are but some of the far-reaching new pressures that are impacting simultaneously on many rural small schools all across this country.

One option receiving renewed interest in the policy communities for alleviating the impact of the new pressures on rural small schools is the promotion of collaboratives that would provide needed instructional and management support services. Fortunately, a relatively large body of research on interorganizational collaboration exists today to aid policy planners and decision makers who advocate this approach.

This paper will examine and synthesize theories of organizations (e.g., systems theory, social exchange theory) that provide a basis for the understanding of interorganizational collaboration. Since most policies that seek to promote collaboration base their strategy for doing so, at least in part, on incentives of one form or another, an examination and synthesis of implementation theory will also be provided.

Drawing upon these three theoretical frameworks (systems theory, social exchange theory, implementation theory), the main body of the paper will consist of a set of propositions that should be considered by the policy communities in designing rural small school collaboratives that have potential for being effective and sustained over time. To be stressed in the propositions are the large number of widely acknowledged promoters and inhibitors to interorganizational collaboration that are particularly relevant for rural small schools.

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Interagency Collaborations - Inservice Training and Certification of Special Education Personnel

Proposal Abstract
for
Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference

Sparse populations, limited number of personnel serving particular categories of exceptional children, or personnel with very different inservice or certification needs pose problems in rural areas of North Carolina. There are special educational professionals working in educational programs and settings other than public schools in these rural areas.

Interagency collaboration has occurred between the service providers as needs of children were identified and as services were exchanged or contracted, but few joint efforts were planned or implemented in the areas of inservice training and certification programs.

Lack of joint planning between public schools, private schools, private providers and other agency educational programs (Head Start, Developmental Day, State Operated Programs, Cherokee Bureau of Indian Affairs Programs) drained the personnel available to provide training from the colleges and universities. It has cost each individual group a lot of money to support the training needs of a few people.

Legislation enacted in the past five years has brought about changes for public schools and agencies delivering educational services. These changes have had direct impact on all special education professionals. This created the need for collaboration between the programs and resources so that the certification and inservice training activities for the special education professional could be met as close to the home community as possible and address the unique needs of the rural communities.

The panel will address the steps taken to bring about the collaboration, reduce cost, meet unique needs, and help direct positive change for special education professionals working in rural communities of North Carolina.

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Tactics, Strategies and Principles of Collaboration in Recent Rural School Development Schemes in the U.K.

(Paper presented to Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference, Virginia, USA, October 1987)

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Tactics, Strategies and Principles of Collaboration in Recent Rural School Development Schemes in the U.K.

In the last two decades, small schools in the rural counties of England and Wales, have lived, or in many individual instances have died, in a context which could almost be said to be schizophrenic.

On the one hand, the official message from Central Government, from the Department of Education & Science and often from the education officers and advisers of many rural counties is that small schools are intrinsically inferior in the education they offer to their pupils; they are also expensive and an unwelcome drain on the public purse. The principal lines of that message are probably as familiar to you as they have become to us on our side of the Atlantic. Small rural schools, it is alleged, provide only a narrow and restricted curriculum; their teachers are professionally isolated and there are too few of them to bring a sufficient range of specialist expertise; the pupil peer groups, similarly, are too small to generate either competition of stimulus.

In England that view has been put forward with increasing urgency in the last few years, culminating, two years ago, in the statement in a Government White Paper, *Better Schools*,(HMSO,1985) which I suppose might be thought of as the equivalent of your *Nation at Risk*, that "it is inherently difficult for very small schools to be educationally satisfactory." The paper asserted that no school with fewer than the 60 to 75 pupils which it takes to justify three teachers should be contemplated except in the most unusual circumstances.

On the other hand, there has also been, in this same period, an extraordinary development of what one might call grassroots support for small rural schools, both in principle and in defence of numerous actual schools threatened with closure. Rather like Iowa's People United for Rural Education (PURE), similar groups in England have had an ear for the power of acronym; thus we have had pressure groups such as the Cumbria Association for Rural Education (CARE) and Defenders Of Village Education (DOVE), and the eventual formation of a National Association for the Support of Small schools. In a consistent and uniform way, these groups have championed an educational philosophy that contradicts the officially promulgated view. They argue that the close, caring relationships to be found in small rural schools, in which teachers know the pupils and their parents intimately and where the school is an integral part of the village environment in which the child is growing up creates a secure learning environment. It is something to be cherished, and, if necessary, defended against any Local Authority threat to close it.

Caught, as they have been, between these countervailing ideologies, a number of Advisers in Local Education Authorities, have been arguing for a pattern of provision of primary education in rural areas which maintained many of the small schools but which also gave them additional support to enable them to address their alleged disadvantages. In a few instances, some small scale experiments, almost invariably involving collaboration between schools, have taken place. As if in recognition of this, in the same year that the Government published *Better Schools*, it also invited Local Authorities to bid for additional monies, through its Education Support Grant (ESG) scheme, for pilot projects designed to "improve the quality and range of curriculum provided in primary schools in rural areas." (1)

In the first year, 1985, twenty-six Local Authorities submitted bids; six were successful and were awarded grants, and in the following year a further seven Authorities were given funding. We thus have, at the present moment, thirteen Local Education Authorities operating support schemes for their rural schools with ESG funding. In addition, a number of Local Authorities which failed to secure Central Government support, have initiated smaller-scale schemes entirely out of local funds.

The range of strategies behind these support schemes is the focus of this paper, but before embarking on that, it is necessary to re-trace our steps a little. We need first to look at collaborative initiatives for strengthening the curricula in rural schools which were being developed by individual Authorities prior to Central Government sponsorship.

Individual Developments Before ESG Funding

It is possible to give a precise date and location to the first coherent system of small rural school support by a Local Authority. In Northamptonshire, in 1974, a scheme drawn up by the Authority's recently appointed primary school Adviser, Sheila Addison, was approved by the Local Council and put into effect. Three groups of schools (one of seven and the other two comprising nine schools), each serving a particular geographical area, were determined by the adviser to receive additional support. The form that this took was twofold: personnel, and physical resources.

Each group of schools was assigned the services of an Advisory Teacher with a designated responsibility for curriculum development, a peripatetic music teacher and, in some instances, extra hours for part-time teachers. The smaller schools in each group were also provided with further secretarial assistance.

The major item of physical resource was a minibus for each group, provided and maintained without any levy on the schools. In addition, some relatively expensive pieces of equipment which would have been beyond the financial capabilities of any one school, such as a 'jumbo' typewriter and a cine camera were provided for each group, certain resource deficiencies in individual schools were remedied and a sum of money was given to purchase practical mathematics apparatus.

Initially, the project received something of a mixed reception in the schools. The Advisory Teacher represented a totally novel kind of appointment and aroused fears of loss of headteacher autonomy. Addison (1982) later observed: "there is no doubt that the holders of the posts needed to exercise the greatest tact and to work hard for credibility and acceptance in the early days." The scale of additional resources also provoked some anxiety, especially the minibus which to some teachers seemed pointless.

In spite of that, eight years into the project (by which time it had been extended to include other groups), Addison was confident of its success; the schools, she claims, were supportive of it, and were using the resources well. There had been some staff changes in the original schools, allowing an influx of people eager to participate, but for Addison:

> *"...there is no doubt that the main reason for the changing attitudes is the way in which the Advisory Teachers in different ways established confident relationships and showed by example what could be achieved with children given some of the resources now at their disposal."*

It is difficult, in my view, to overstate the importance of the pioneering work initiated by that Local Education Authority Adviser. It is not simply that this support scheme was the first, by several years, but that it established a model from which almost all other Authorities were eventually to draw. Most of the bids for ESG funding, a decade later, owe a debt of some sort to Northamptonshire. The essential features of that model were:

1. Creating discrete groups of schools in geographic proximity;

2. Providing the group with a supernumerary Advisory Teacher to act as a change agent and to encourage collaborative work between the schools of the group;

3. Making available the means of transporting children to extend the curriculum or to bring them into contact with other children of similar age;

4. Building up a bank of additional resources or equipment in a central location for the group's use.

At the beginning of the 1980s, several years later in other words, a number of other Authorities began to establish support schemes for a small number of their rural primary schools. These developments were, as far as one can judge, quite independent of each other, but had three features in common. They all incorporated something of the Northamptonshire model; they were all on a far more modest scale, lacking as they did any substantial financial commitment from their Local Councils; behind every one of them could be found a sympathetic Local Authority Adviser. Usually this was someone who was willing to chance his or her arm, perhaps in the face of opposition from professional colleagues, and to spend time, energy and whatever bits of money which could be clawed out of the education budget to set up and maintain local initiatives.

Without doubt, the announcement that Education Support Grants were available to fund pilot schemes to provide support to small rural primary schools gave a powerful impetus to this trend. Each of the thirteen Local Authorities whose bids were to prove successful responded to the same brief from the Department of Education & Science, to "improve the quality and range of the curriculum". Yet they interpreted it in significantly different ways. When we look across the thirteen programmes which have emerged, we see differently conceived strategies.

Dissect any strategy, and you end up with an array of tactics. Extending the view across the thirteen projects funded under the ESG scheme reveals the most varied collection of tactical decisions. The way I propose to present the analysis is through a series of dichotomies, each of which represents an issue upon which a tactical decision has to be made in the process of arriving at a strategy for supporting the schools. It is a crude technique, but it has the singular advantage of focussing attention on the most salient elements in the strategies which have recently been developed in the U.K. (2)

Tactics of Support

Who Can Receive Support?

Federations of Schools	Individual Schools

What are the Characteristics of a Federation?

Large Number of Schools (eg 17)	(**)	Small Number of Schools (eg 3)
Composition determined by LEA officials (compulsion)		Composition determined by teachers (voluntarism)
Genesis through LEA Adviser's action		Genesis through teachers' personal contact
Co-terminus with secondary school catchment boundaries		Cuts across secondary school catchment areas

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(**) One of the federations in the North Yorkshire scheme comprises 17 schools; in the Cornwall scheme, clusters are typically of 3 or 4 schools.

What are the Characteristics of Support Personnel?

Support staff appointed for a given duration	Finance given to Headteachers to use flexibly on extra staffing
Appointed for the duration of the project	Appointed on short-term secondments (eg. one year)
Seconded from within the Federation	Seconded from outside the Federation
Selection by LEA Officers	Selection by Headteachers
Support Personnel have subject specific expertise	Support Personnel have general expertise
Status? Quasi-Adviser (Super-headteacher)	Status? Quasi Curriculum-Consultant (Sub-headteacher)

How is the Strategy Intended to Support the Schools?

Focus on immediate curriculum enrichment for existing pupils	Focus on long-term professional development of teachers
Expertise sought from within the Federation on 'self-help' basis	Expertise sought from external sources
Teacher exchanges encouraged	Teacher exchanges not encouraged
Teachers see each other at work in classrooms	Teachers listen to each other in meetings
School-centred	Community-centred
Minibus provided for each Federation	Funds offered for occasional hire of buses

The dichotomies outlined above represent the tactical decisions which have been faced, and answered one way or another, in each of the ESG projects. The list has been derived from analysis of the thirteen projects. When you assemble a set of tactics, you arrive at a strategy. The variation that exists can be shown through three brief examples.

ESG Strategies in Three Counties

1. Berkshire

The project involves four groups (each of ten schools). These groups had been brought into being, as so-called *Federations*, by an enthusiastic Adviser, several years before and provided with a small amount of financial backing. There was, therefore, some embryonic background of cooperative working.

The major new resource consisted of the annual appointment of an Advisory Support Teacher. The Headteachers of each Federation were required, after consultation with their staffs, to determine one area of curriculum priority for their collection of schools. A teacher, with expertise in that particular field (eg. science, CDT or the use of computers), was then recruited from elsewhere in the county and seconded for one year to work alongside classteachers in the schools of the Federation. Representatives from the Headteachers were involved in making the appointment.

In addition, there was finance available to fund pupils' transportation and a small amount set aside for building a basic resource bank in the curriculum area selected.

The Advisory Support Teachers, who were paid on a salary rather less than most Headteachers, were encouraged to run joint workshops, although the facility for releasing the teachers to attend in school hours, remained in the hands of the Headteachers.

2. Norfolk

Here too, there were four groups, each of seven or eight schools. Two groups had a slight history of previous cooperative enterprise; the remaining two groups were administrative creations announced to the schools when it was learnt that the bid to the Department of Education had been successful.

To run the scheme, an overall Project Coordinator and four Area Coordinators were appointed for the duration of the project. These were the results of national advertisements and the Headteachers were not permitted any part in this process. The principal qualification of those appointed was not a specific curriculum expertise so much as the fact that they were all experienced Headteachers of small rural primary schools.

Each of the four Federations was provided with a minibus to be used by its schools and a very small amount of money was available for the Area Coordinator to purchase items of equipment which could be made available to the schools.

3. Dorset

In this County, the scheme comprised two groups each of ten schools. One of these had been in existence for three years, had engaged in a substantial amount of cooperative curriculum development work, and, at least among the Headteachers had established a strong sense of corporate identity. It was very much the product of the personal enthusiasm of one of the County's Advisers. The other group was formed de novo at the start of the project and became the responsibility of a different Adviser.

The major resource which ESG funding made possible was the seconding, on an annual basis of two teachers from within each group of schools. One was a Headteacher to act as the Project Leader for the year, and the other, to support whatever initiatives were forthcoming, was recruited from the ranks of classteacher. The precise job-specifications were drawn up in meetings of the Headteachers before volunteers were sought for the first secondments, and Headteachers were involved in the selection.

In addition, one permanent appointment was made for a particularly innovative element of the scheme - the "play and learn van". Each group was provided with a van stocked with pre-school educational games and learning materials which could be borrowed by the parents of young children. Rather like a mobile library, the van toured the catchment area of the schools, driven by the appointed teacher who introduced parents to the materials, either in their homes or in village halls.

In the first group, a four year joint curriculum programme was embarked upon with an annual celebration of the pupils' work staged at the County Show Ground.

Ideas that Shape the Strategy

I will return to these three illustrations in a moment, but first let me develop the argument by referring to the ideas that underlie these strategies.

What I have done so far - identifying the tactical decisions which each project has faced and illustrating three different strategies which have emerged from unique configurations of tactics - is actually very simple. What is much more difficult is to get at the underlying ideas which gave birth to any particular strategy and which, therefore, helped to determine the specific tactical choices that were made. What I mean by underlying ideas are the beliefs that are held by Local Authority Advisers (who design strategies of support) on matters such as:

the nature of a primary school curriculum;
what counts as curriculum enrichment;
the way professional development of teachers takes place;
the purpose and character of a federation;
the precise role of support or coordinating staff.

For instance, the Berkshire project appears to be saying something about the nature of the curriculum; it is to be thought of as a set of discrete areas and improving it can therefore be seen as injecting expert teaching into one of these areas. The ideal location for In-service education would appear to be the teacher's own classroom, during a normal working day, with a skilled support teacher working alongside her - a kind of apprenticeship model. In another respect, the strategy hints at an individual school-based approach - the work of the support teacher seems to be centred on individual schools as distinct from fostering federal activities, and the federation looks as if it is an administrative device for facilitating that. The fact that much control remains with the Headteachers lends credence to that interpretation.

By contrast, the Norfolk strategy gives every appearance of being informed by a rather more managerialist set of ideas. There is a heavy investment of resources in the top echelons of the project team, each of them experienced and successful ex-Headteachers, and each of them presumably with their own views on what constitutes a good primary school curriculum. The commitment to a set of minibuses indicates a view about the isolation of rural children, and perhaps, their teachers.

In Dorset, the idea that the federation should serve rather as an interactive forum than as an administrative unit of autonomous institutions emerges as a seminal belief in the formulation of the strategy. It is built upon (at least in the first group) an established network of personal and professional relationships from which the support staff are recruited as annual volunteers to perform a role, the specifications which have been determined by the group. It is a strategy which, on the face of it, places curriculum enrichment and professional development in the hands of the teachers.

Each of these three projects, indeed each of the thirteen ESG-funded projects, not to mention others which have been developed in counties which have not received the extra stimulus of Government finance, are the product of some set of underlying beliefs. In fact. they could hardly be otherwise; no educationalist begins with a mere tactic (eg. 'I think we will appoint a support teacher who is an expert in science teaching'), let alone a comprehensive strategy, without it being rooted in some set of beliefs. It is those beliefs, about the curriculum, about how it can be developed and the part that teachers can play in that process, which determine the point of departure into the tactical decisions which constitute a strategy.

To the extent that it is ideas about such matters which energise a strategy, and bring it either towards some fruition or to grief, it would seem to be especially important for any group, selecting a particular way forward, to clarify its own thinking. It is my experience of a number of rural school support schemes (whether funded locally or by ESG) that this has happened much more readily in some than in others.

In some projects, it does seem that the underpinning beliefs have remained as unquestioned assumptions among the project's central figures. They have not been seriously examined or articulated and certainly not shared with the teachers taking part. In these circumstances, it might actually be difficult for the project team to share its ideas since they tend to consist of assumptions about the deficiencies of rural school teachers - that they are professionally out of date, that they are suspicious and resistent to change, and so on. When received assumptions of this sort are the energy behind the strategy adopted, they become the 'hidden curriculum' of the project as it is experienced by the teachers; they serve also to provide the project team with an easy explanation for whatever difficulties the strategy encounters when it is put into motion.

Elsewhere, in other projects, Advisers and the project leaders have been able, successfully, to develop a coherent philosophy of how to support their rural schools which dovetails with the strategy adopted and justifies the specific tactics chosen. They have been able to articulate it in terms of how it should inform the relationships between the schools, Headteachers and teachers who are to engage in curriculum development, and the kind of support which is congruent with those relationships. In these circumstances they have had the confidence to share their thinking both with teachers and local politicians.

In the end, it may turn out to be crucial that these ideas are shared because Education Support Grants are intended only to finance *pilot* projects; they are limited to a five year time scale. Where this grant has enabled a Local Authority to develop a coherent set of ideas for supporting the curricula of its rural schools, it is possible to have a sense of optimism that what is emerging can survive the end of ESG funding. Where this is not the case, one can only be pessimistic, even though the additional funding has been used to enrich the curricula of the children currently attending the schools.

Notes

1) Education Support Grants (ESG), by which Central Government provides 70% and the Local Education Authority provides 30% of the finances, are available in a number of areas specified by the Government. Local Authorities are required to bid for funds.

(2) My colleague, Alan Sigsworth, and I are engaged in the evaluation of four ESG projects. We have visited, or elsewhere had the opportunity for extended conversations with, Advisers and/or Project Coordinators in nine of the thirteen project Authorities. We have received written documentation on the remaining projects. We have also had the opportunity to visit other Local Education Authorities which are developing support schemes based upon local finances. This analysis is based on these data.

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ABSTRACT: DAISEY PROGRAM

DEVELOPMENTAL ASSESSMENT & INSTRUCTION FOR SUCCESS IN THE EARLY YEARS

"A TESTING & TEACHING PROGRAM FOR RURAL/POVERTY PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN AT RISK FOR SCHOOL FAILURE"

This product demonstration will focus on a developmental skill assessment instrument and a twenty-week instructional program for 3, 4, and 5 year old low-income rural children. The program includes (1) Placement Test (Screening) (2) Inventory (Diagnostic Test) and (3) Instructional Program (4) DAISEY AT HOME (parent component).

The overall goal of the DAISEY PROGRAM is the prevention of learning problems adversely affecting school performance through early identification and individualized instruction in the developmental skill areas of Language, Problem Solving and Motor.

The program was funded through grants from the Department of Health and Human Services in South Carolina. The assessment instrument has been field tested using 390 children in the state of South Carolina. The 75 item assessment has been found to be valid and reliable. The Instructional Program which accompanies the assessment instruments has been designed to teach skills which are neccessary for readiness and later success in reading, writing, and mathematics. The instruction is based on 75 sequential objectives in the developmental areas of Language, Problem Solving & Motor. Within each content area an appropriate range and sequence of activities are included. The program also include a parent component entitled "Daisey at Home".

The DAISEY PROGRAM also includes an accompanying video-tape which will give the user the necessary training to implement the program with 3,4, and 5 year old children at risk for school failure.

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"TI-IN" To A Classroom Without Walls

The "Classroom Without Walls" created by TI-IN Network, Satellite Transmitted Academic Resources, removes geographical barriers to existing educational programs and equalizes access to educational resources for students, teachers and administrators in rural and isolated schools. The Network provides a medium to access critically-needed programs and courses, and it answers several major concerns of rural and small-school education: (1) the availability of qualified teachers in critical subject areas; (2) the responsibility of the school district to provide instruction to the often too few students on one campus who qualify for or need specific courses such as foreign languages, and honors and advanced courses in math and science; (3) the continuous challenge of training and retraining of the school district's teachers and administrators when the costs of quality resources are beyond the budget of the school district.

TI-IN Network responds to these concerns by delivering over 100 hours per week of live and interactive programming such as, high school credit courses for students, staff development programs for school district professional and support staff, college credit courses, and English as a Second Language instruction. It creates, in essence, a classroom without walls for students and teachers alike.

TI-IN Network is a state-of-the-art interactive-instructional satellite delivery system featuring:

- Ku-band direct broadcast satellite technology providing up to five channels of live, interactive course instruction each hour.
- Automatic dial audio response via toll-free (800 service) phone lines.
- Electronic copy distribution of handouts, exams and administrative information.
- Addressable, computer-controlled broadcast signal to provide program security.
- A turnkey, single-vendor approach to providing a complete system of technology and programming to rural schools.

Entering its third year of service to our nation's schools, TI-IN Network developed as a cooperative venture between private enterprise and public education in an effort to equalize access to scarce educational resources nationwide. Rural and isolated school districts in twenty states currently participate in the programming of TI-IN Network -- the "Classroom Without Walls".

Delivering University Instruction to Rural/Remote Educators Via Interactive Television: A Study of Instructional Effectiveness

presented at the
National Convention
of the

National Rural and Small Schools Consortium
14 October 1987
by

M. Winston Egan and Joan Sebastian
University of Utah

Delivering University Instruction to Rural/Remote Educators Via Interactive Television: A Study of Instructional Effectiveness

INTRODUCTION

College instructors for quite some time have made use of television to deliver courses to on-campus as well as off-campus students (Whittington, 1987). In the main these courses were not interactive in nature, that is, students did not have the opportunity to interact with the instructor or professor during the course lectures or presentations. "The talking head" courses as they have sometimes been called did not incorporate the best elements of instructional design or television production. However, times have changed and the instructional television course or telecourse of today may be considerably different than those produced during the infancy of instructional television. Also, instructors using the medium may now interact with their students through telephone lines or two-way interactive audio and video signals. Instructors may now hear as well as see off-campus or off site class participants who are receiving their instruction. Such is the case at the University of Utah.

Although the research regarding the instructional effectiveness of interactive instruction is meager; the preliminary findings are quite positive with regard to learning outcomes and perceptions regarding the value of the medium in delivery meaningful and interesting instruction (Ellis & Mathis, 1985; Roth, 1980; Sharpe, 1980; Whittington, 1987). The Department of Special Education at the University of Utah for the past three years has transmitted a variety of certification and graduate courses to rural/remote sites within the state. These courses have been delivered to bachelor's, post-bachelor's and graduate students in four rural/remote Utah communities (Ephraim, Vernal, Manila and Roosevelt).

The rationale for conducting the studies of instructional effectiveness was multifaceted. First, the researchers were interested in adding to the knowledge base regarding distance education through two-way interactive television. Secondly, they were eager to examine the effectiveness of the instruction that had been delivered. Thirdly, they were interested in improving future instruction that would be provided through the State of Utah two-way interactive television system (EDNET).

The study addressed in this paper centers on one course. This course was Applied Behavioral Analysis. It was taught during the spring quarter of 1987. Moreover, it was the fourth course in a series of courses that the instructor had taught on the EDNET system. Therefore, he was somewhat familiar with the challenges and opportunities that were inherent in the medium and process.

A variety of effectiveness measures were utilized to compare the effectiveness of the two-way interactive television in delivering the university course to rural/remote students. These include academic pre and post-tests scores, course evaluations, and media specific evaluations.

Quasiexperimental research designs were employed to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction provided via two-way interactive television. The control groups for the study were classes of on-campus bachelor's and post-bachelor's students. They received their instruction face to face in a university television studio. The experimental groups were classes of rural/remote students who were also in the process of completing special education certifications. They received their instruction via the Educational Network (EDNET) in classrooms equipped with at least one television monitor, several microphones, and a television camera for transmitting a video signal back to the university studio. The television instruction was interactive in that any rural student could communicate with the instructor using any one of a number of microphones in each setting. Likewise the university instructor was able to communicate with any student in any of the remote settings using a microphone. As they communicated one with another, they were also able to see each other.

The investigators were interested in evaluating a number of hypotheses regarding the effectiveness of instruction delivered through interactive television to rural/remote students. The investigators assumed that there would be no significant differences between the experimental groups (off-campus students) and the control groups (on-campus students) on the following variables: (1) the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness, (2) comparison of the two-way television to a conventional course, (3) the amount of material covered in the course (4) the organization of the content, (5) the beneficialness of slides, text screens, films, and other visual materials, and (6) learning performance. Each of these variables will be addressed in the subsequent sections of the paper.

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects of the study were bachelor's or post-bachelor's certification students. Data regarding a variety of demographic measures were collected on each subject. The control or on-campus group was characterized by the following features. Fourteen percent of the students were certified as regular education teachers. Seventy-eight percent of the group has completed an introductory course dealing with special education populations. Seventy-one percent of the subjects had completed a behavior management course earlier in their training. The average rating for the group on a 1-7 lickert scales (1=low, 7=high) with regard to "overall motivation for taking the course" was 5.57.

Twelve percent of the experimental of off-campus group were certified as regular education teachers. Sixty-three percent of the group had completed an introductory course in special education. Thirty percent of the students had previously taken a behavior management course. Their motivation for taking the course averaged 5.9 on the 7 point lickert scale.

PROCEDURE

The researchers evaluated the instructional effectiveness of the two-way interactive television using several evaluation tools. The first of these tools was a course evaluation scale (see Appendix A). This evaluation is utilized to evaluate all courses taught through the special education department. It is designed to assess students' perceptions regarding the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness in presenting concepts clearly, clarifying course objectives, providing student feedback, utilizing appropriate evaluation techniques, and demonstrating interest in students' growth. The course evaluation employs a seven point lickert scale for each of the areas of teaching. A rating of one (1) represents "poor" performance and a rating of seven (7) represents "excellent" performance in teaching. The items found in the scale are highly intercorrelated with each other. Given this fact, the investigators have chosen to analyze data drawn from only one factor on the scale, the rating of overall teaching effectiveness.

The second assessment tool was a media evaluation. It was designed to assess various elements of the two-way interactive television sessions.

Included within this evaluation are lickert ratings pertaining to amount of material covered, the difficulty of the course, the clarity of the content presented, the usefulness of slides, films, and other media, the relationship of the course objectives to what was seen and heard during the various course sessions, and other factors (see Figure 1). A one to five lickert

(Insert Figure 1 about here)

scale was used to assess each variable. The media evaluations were completed at the at the conclusion of each course. In contrast to the course evaluation items, the items selected for analysis on this scale appear to be highly independent based on preliminary correlational analyses conducted in conjunction with two previous courses. The third effectiveness measure was an evaluation of academic performance as assessed by an objective pretest and post test. The pretests were administered to the students before they were exposed to any instruction, and the post test was given after all instruction had been completed. The test items for the pre and post tests were randomly selected from the weekly quizzes.

Data Analysis

A number of analysis procedures were utilized to evaluate the various sources of effectiveness data. Not all data generated from the course and media evaluations were analyzed. The researchers selected one factor from the 10 item department course evaluation form and four variables from the 17 item media evaluation form. These factors and variables were selected for a variety of reasons. As was indicated earlier, all of the items found in the course evaluation scale appear to be highly intercorrelated with each other. Therefore only the ratings derived from the "Overall rating of the instructor's effectiveness," were analyzed. Four items from the media evaluation scale were selected primarily because of their independence and relevance to future program improvement and modification.

Data generated from the course and media evaluations were analyzed using a series of two tailed t tests. A significance level of .01 was established as a basis for rejecting each hypothesis related to the effectiveness measures. The factors included for comparative analysis were the students' ratings of (1) the instructor's overall teaching effectiveness, (2) comparison of the two-way television to a conventional course, (3) the amount of material covered in the course, (4) the organization of the content and (5) the beneficialness of slides, text screens, films, and other visual materials.

The pre and post-test scores for the course were evaluated using t tests. Again an .01 level of significance was utilized as a basis for rejecting the hypothesis dealing with learning performance.

RESULTS

The mean score for the course evaluation factor, instructor's overall teaching effectiveness, was 6.33 for the on-campus class and 5.63 for the off-campus class (see Table 1). The t value for these scores was 3.49. There was significant difference ($p = .001$) between the ratings given by the on-campus group in comparison to the rural/remote group

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Table 1

Summary of Two-tailed t Test for Overall Rating of Instructor's Teaching Effectiveness, Department Course Evaluation

	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	df	t	2-tailed p. value
On Campus Group	21	6.33	.65	49	3.49	.0011
Off Campus Group	30	5.63	.76			

The mean ratings for the first variable on the media evaluation were 3.20 for the on-campus group and 2.41 for the rural/remote groups (see Table 2). A significant difference was not established between the two groups on this variable (t value of -0.95, p. = .3440).

Table 2

Results of t-test Analysis of Mean Differences on the Comparison of Two-Way Interactive Television Course to a Conventional Course

Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	2-tailed p. value
On Campus	24	3.20	.77	-0.95	51	.3440
Rural/Remote	29	3.41	.77			

The means for the second variable for the on-campus group and the rural remote group were respectively 3.58 and 3.41 (see Table 3) There was no significant difference between the two groups on this variable.

Table 3

Results of t-test Analysis of Mean Differences on the Adequacy of the Amount of Material Covered in the Course

Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	2-tailed p. value
On Campus	24	3.58	.59	1.13	51	.2605
Rural/Remote	29	3.41	.50			

The means for the third variable, course content organization, were 4.45 for the on-campus group and 4.31 for the rural/remote group. No significant difference was established in comparing the two groups on this variable (see Table 4).

Table 4

Results of t-test Analysis of Mean Differences on the organization of the content of the course

Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	2-tailed p. value
On Campus	24	4.45	.721	.69	51	.488
Rural/Remote	29	4.31	.80			

Means for the fourth variable, beneficialness of the text screens in supporting the instructor's delivery, were 4.12 for the on-campus group and 4.24 for the rural remote group (see Table 5). The two-tailed t test of significance revealed no significant difference between these means.

Table 5

Results of t-test Analysis of Mean Differences on the Beneficialness of Text Screens

Group	n	Mean	SD	t	df	2-tailed p. value
On Campus	24	4.12	.991	−0.46	51	.643
Rural/Remote	29	4.24	.830			

The means for the pretest performance of the on-campus and off-campus students were 10.86 and 8.10 (see Table 6). The t value for these means was 3.27. A significant difference was established between the means (p. = .002). The means for the post test performance for both groups were respectively 73.16 and 73.87 (see Table 7). There was no significant difference between these two means given the t value of −0.47.

Table 6

Summary of Two-Tailed t Test for Pretest Performance for Applied Behavioral Analysis.

	Number of cases	Mean	SD	df	t	2-tailed p. value
On-Campus	22	10.86	2.98	48.	3.27	.002
Off-Campus	28	8.10	2.93			

Table 7

Summary of Two-Tailed t Test for Post Test Performance for Applied Behavioral Analysis

	Number of cases	Mean	SD	df	t	2-tailed p. value
On-Campus	25	73.16	6.97	54.	-0.47	.633
Off-Campus	31	73.87	3.98			

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to compare the effectiveness of two instructional delivery modes, live on-campus instruction and live two-way interactive television. Using t tests and a conservative level of significance testing (p. =.01), several types of data were analyzed to evaluate the quality of each mode of instruction. Ratings drawn from the course evaluations for the control (on-campus) and experimental (off-campus) group were uniformly high, however; a significant difference was established between the means on this variable. Therefore the hypothesis regarding this variable was rejected. Off-campus students did not rate the overall effectiveness of the instruction as highly as the on-campus students. This finding is particularly interesting in light of specific steps that were taken by the instructor to diminish the differences between the ratings of the two groups. These steps included the development of improved course materials, utilization of site facilitators/instructors and improvement in providing timely feedback regarding student assignments and projects.

The instructor was unable to sizably reduce the variability in ratings given by the two groups in comparisons to previous preliminary studies that the researchers had conducted. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the amount of variance accounted for in the significant t value is about 20 percent. Eighty percent of the remaining variance continues to be unexplained. This finding is difficult to interpret because of an the absence of corresponding studies dealing with this aspect of two-way interactive television (Whittington,1987).

A number of interesting patterns emerged from the ratings drawn from the media specific evaluations. With regard to first variable, comparison of the two-way interactive course to a conventional course, the analysis revealed no significant difference between the off-campus and on-campus groups on this variable. Moreover, the off-campus group rated the course slightly higher on the five point lickert scale than did the on-campus group. This result stands in stark contrast to other research that has been conducted by the investigators. In two previous studies, significant differences were established on this variable. It may well be that some of the steps taken to reduce the variability between the groups may have had some impact. These steps were mentioned earlier in the paper.

Ratings generated with regard to the sufficiency of the amount of material covered in the course exceeded 3.00 in both the control and experimental group. Given their experiences with other courses, off-campus as well as on-campus students perceived the work load to be sufficient for the course. No significant differences were found on the variables dealing with course organization and the beneficialness of text screens/media. Students had positive views regarding the organization of the course and the media that was utilized. These results are similar to those obtained by Roth (1980). The relative importance of media in airing two-way television courses is yet to be determined. Media does, however, play an important role in moving instructors away from the "talking head" variety of instructional television. Also, carefully selected media may be considerably more effective than the lecture approach in communicating certain types of concepts and information.

Instruction delivered through two-way interactive television appears to be as effective as face to face instruction in promoting academic achievement. No significant differences were obtained between the control and experimental groups on pre and post measures of learning performance. These findings are consonant with the results obtained by other researchers in the field (Ellis & Mathis, 1985; Sharpe, 1980).

In summary, two-way interactive television is a reliable, practical, and cost effective means for delivering instruction to off-campus students in rural/remote communities. Although significant differences were established on a number of important instructional variables, these differences did not adversely influence the academic performance of students who received their instruction via two-way interactive television. Further effectiveness studies need to be conducted to determine the elements of television instruction that truly contribute to productive and high interest learning. Once these elements have been isolated, they may be incorporated by television instructors in producing courses that capitalize on the unique strengths of the television medium. Furthermore, studies addressing the actual impact of television instruction on daily teacher performance need to be completed. Instructors need to know whether consumers of their courses are in fact using the knowledge, procedures and strategies in working with exceptional children and youth.

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Figure 1

Instructional Media Evaluation Form (selected items)

How would you rate the telecourse compared to a conventional course?

Inferior		The same		Superior
1	2	3	4	5

How would you describe the amount of material covered in the telecourse?

Inadequate		Sufficient		Overloaded
1	2	3	4	5

How would you describe the level of difficulty of the telecourse?

Oversimplified		Average		Challenging
1	2	3	4	5

How beneficial was the use of text screens to support the presenter's delivery?

Not helpful		Sufficient		Very helpful
1	2	3	4	5

DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

Course Evaluation

Course Title ______________________________ No. ______ Section _______

Instructor ______________________________ Quarter ______ Year ________

Instructions: Circle the number that most closely reflects your evaluation of each area.

POOR EXCELLENT

1. Overall rating of instructor's teaching effectiveness. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

2. Presentation of concepts in organized, clear manner. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comment:

3. Motivating students through the creation of an atmosphere of academic inquiry. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

4. Definition and clarification of course objectives, expectations, and requirements. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

5. Provision of feedback relating to student progress. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

6. Demonstration of interest in student's academic growth. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

7. Provision of assignments which contributed to the understanding of the course content. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

8. Utilization of evaluation techniques which fairly measured class content. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

9. Promotion of learning through the course format. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

10. Extent to which this course met specified objectives. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Comments:

Other areas of evaluation (to be included at the instructor's discretion).

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 14, 1987

11:05 - 12:05 PM

Title of Presentation

The Office of Special Education Programs' Rural Competition:
A Look at Innovative Projects and Discussion of Past Performances
and Future Directions.

Presentors

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Overview

The Preparation of Personnel to Work in Rural Areas competition began in 1985 with 42 applications being submitted to the Office of Special Education Programs' Division of Personnel Preparation. Eight applications were funded in the amount of $566,768. In 1986, 32 applications were submitted and eight more were funded in the amount of $564,024. This year, 66 applications were submitted and 15 were funded at a cost of $1,162,744. Grants funded in 1985 reported that 495 individuals were trained. In 1986, 711 individuals were reported trained with 979 individuals being projected for 1987.

The quality of the applications submitted has improved each year and the competition has intensified. Innovative approaches to training have increased and model programs are already being disseminated. The characteristics and content of the training programs are so varied that no predominant focus has emerged. Eighteen of the 31 projects involve Master's level training with the remaining programs being either Bachelor's level training or certification programs.

The following projects are examples of the types of projects being funded by the rural competition.

Dr. Pamm Mattick
St. Cloud State University
St. Cloud, MN

Cooperative Statewide Rural Infant Personnel Preparation

Nearly 60% of the school districts in Minnesota provide some educational services and programming for handicapped infants (ages 0-3 years). While Minnesota has an extensive 54 quarter credit teacher licensure (certification) in Special Education: Early Childhood, most University preparation programs have focused on content and practica concerning the education of 3 and 4 year old handicapped children. There is a significant statewide need for content relating to handicapped infants, particularly as applied in rural service delivery models.

In response to this need, the seven Universities with State approved teacher licensure programs in Special Education: Early Childhood, have formed a consortium including the MN State Department of Education. This consortium has developed a system of summer institutes and cosponsored workshops focusing on rural infant programming. These institutes and workshops are available for undergraduate and graduate credit through each of the cooperating institutions of higher education.

This presentation will highlight how the cooperative nature of the activities has: (1) offered a statewide training experience, (2) has provided both urban and rural personnel with information concerning rural infant programs, (3) has provided a forum for all Minnesota teachers to have access to nationally recognized infant specialists, (4) has resulted in the development of instructional modules relative to rural infant programming that can be incorporated into the regular University personnel preparation programs, (5) has provided a model of cooperation between seven public and private Universities concerning faculty contracts, credit, course offerings, and curriculum development, and (6) has provided continuing education opportunities for the faculty at all seven universities.

Dr. Thomas Longhurst
Idaho State University
Pocatello, ID

Training Communication Disorders Specialists for Rural Idaho: 1987-1990

Idaho is geographically a very large state, with 65% of its land federally owned, and a population of less than one million. These are factors which severely limit available financial resources for education, placing it 48th in the nation in spending per student. Needs assessments suggest 66% of Idaho's preschool-age and 54% of school-age speech-language impaired children are unserved, partly because of a shortage of communication disorders specialists (CDSs). The needs are particularly serious in school districts, Native American and Migrant Head Start Programs, and Adult/Child Development Centers in rural areas of Idaho.

The project staff will identify 18 qualified professional people from rural communities, recruit and train them, and then support their retention in rural practice environments in Idaho. Special, innovative features of the project include: emphasis on indirect (consultation) rather than direct services: focus on cognitive, language, and communication intervention (rather than articulation therapy); and a training focus on speech-language problems of preschool and adolescent students as well as the traditionally served elementary school population. Two specialized instructional workshops on rural values clarification, rural culture, and rural CDS practice and services will also be developed. Rural practica supervised by experienced rural supervisors will be provided. There will also be provision for post-graduate support and continuing education to facilitate CDS employee retention in rural environments. Successful procedures, exemplary materials, curricula, and models will be disseminated throughout Idaho and to other rural states.

Dr. Marilyn Johnson
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, AZ

A Graduate Level Training Program in Special Education for Native Americans That Stresses Certification with Bilingual/Bicultural Skill Development

This master's level special education training program is designed to meet the needs of Native Americans residing in the Southwest. At the present time, rural districts located on or near reservations experience difficulty retaining qualified Native Americans. This program is working with affected districts and tribes in identifying and training Native Americans from local communities. In addition, we are developing a personnel data bank to identify district needs for qualified personnel.

Students are identified via a cooperative effort with rural districts and tribes who need qualified special education teachers. These districts are asked to identify potential students who might want to teach special education in the district. Districts are cautioned to identify only teachers who have community ties and who will remain in the community after receiving training. These teachers are contacted to determine their interest in the program.

Students are able to choose from two training options: (1) a certification training program, or (2) a Master's degree that includes certification. In addition to the training option, students select the schedule of training they wish to pursue: (1) summers only; or (2) summers and academic year. The latter option expedites the training process and allows the individual to return to the community within a relatively short period of time.

The training programs lead toward certification in multiple areas of special education in order to meet rural school district needs for certified personnel for low incidence populations. All students participate in course work designed to improve their skills in relating to local community systems, interdisciplinary models of service consistgent with local community values and the development of teaching techniques that correspond to specific community characteristics.

Dr. Doris Helge
National Rural Development Institute
Western Washington University
Bellingham, WA

Support services for universities training rural special educators

The National Rural Development Institute, through grants awarded to the American Council on Rural Special Education, supports OSERS' rural personnel preparation (RPP) initiative. Since 1981, a variety of support services have been offered to preservice training institutions. These include the following.

Databased rural personnel preparation modules.

Each module is based on assessed field needs and an extensive computerized database of strategies that are viable in serving rural special education populations. Topics of modules available are:

- Solving Educational Dilemmas Related to School Administration
- Solving Rural Parent-Professional Related Dilemmas
- Working with Peer Professionals in Rural Environments
- Involving Citizens and Agencies of Rural Communities in Cooperative Programming for Handicapped Students
- Working with Parents of Rural Handicapped Students
- Personnel Development Skills and Strategies for Effective Survival as a Rural Special Educator
- Creative Resource Identification for Providing Services to Rural Handicapped Students
- Alternate Instructional Arrangements and Delivery Systems for Low-Incidence Handicapped Students in Rural America
- The State of the Art of Rural Special Education
- Warren Springs, Mesa. A Rural Preservice Simulation for use with Rural Preservice Modules

Topics of preservice modules under development are listed in Appendix A.

Publications concerning rural personnel preparation strategies and effective techniques of serving rural students with disabilities.

These include the Rural Special Education Quarterly, RuraLink, Journal of Rural and Small Schools, and Classroom Clips.

National Task Forces addressing specific rural service delivery problems and issues.

These include the following:

- Adapted Physical Education and Therapeutic Recreation
- Adolescent Suicide Prevention

- Cross-Cultural
- Dissemination, Publications, and Newsletter
- Early Childhood
- Family-Professional Relationships
- Health and Related Services
- Interagency Collaboration
- LEA Program Development
- Membership Development
- Personnel Recruitment and Retention
- Policy Development
- Preservice
- Professional Development
- Research
- Technology
- Transition
- University Student Involvement

National Conferences

Two annual major national conferences allow teacher-trainers to share their effective strategies and to learn of field-based approaches. Practitioners, teacher/trainers, state education agency personnel, parents, and school board members are involved in the American Council on Rural Special Education conference and the National Rural and Small Schools Consortium conference.

Research is facilitated through the National Rural Education Research Consortium

This research addresses major field and teacher education problems. Persons with specific research questions are linked with others who are interested in investigating questions. This service also links data samples with those attempting studies.

Rural Electronic Bulletin Board

This service allows users with a computer communication package and modem to access and input a rural electronic bulletin board. This board features effective service delivery and teacher education strategies. In addition, users can use the electronic mail service and request information and reactions from other participants.

Jobs Data Bank

The rural jobs data bank allows teacher educators to inform their students of jobs available in rural areas and students to list themselves as being available. A rural job exchange system is also part of this service.

Other services

Other resources and services available to those preparing rural special educators include a resource linkage system and other publications.

APPENDIX A

RURAL PRESERVICE MODULES UNDER DEVELOPMENT

Career/Vocational Service Delivery Systems for Mildly to Moderately Handicapped Rural Secondary Students
by Stanley Vasa and Marilyn Scheffler
at University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE

Training Volunteers & Families as Paraprofessional Assistants to Serve Rural Handicapped Children
by Philip Lyon and Richard Medved
at The College of Saint Rose, Albany, NY

Computer Application for Exceptional Learners in Rural Settings
by John Vokurka
at Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, KY

Serving as a Rural Special Education Itinerant Consultant
by Dvenna Duncan and June Canty-Lemke
at University of Portland, Portland, OR

The Rural Educator's Role in Child Abuse/Neglect
by Mary Hoy
at Iowa State University, Ames, IA

Teacher Consultation Skills in the Rural Education Setting
by Aileen Lau, Gail Raymond, & Dean McIntosh
at University of South Carolina, Columbia, SC

Career Education for Rural Elementary Special Education Students
by Tom Stich and Richard Shick
at Mansfield University, Mansfield, PA

Rural Special Education Administration
by Larry Betterman
at Kearney State College, Kearney, NE

Serving the Rural Handicapped Student and Family through Cooperative Efforts of Mental Health Centers and Schools
by Clyde Shepherd
at Keene State College

Technology in Rural Schools
by Daniel R. Paulson
at University of Wisconsin, Stout, WI

Delivery of Adaptive Physical Education Services in Rural Settings
by D. Larry Carmichael
at University of Vermont, Burlington, VT

Transition Programming for Disabled Adolescents--School to Post-School Placement
by Alana Zambone and Daryl Wilcox
at Minot State College, Minot, ND

Using Acceleration to Individualize Instruction for Gifted Students in Rural Areas
by Edwina D. Pendarvis
at Marshall University, Huntington, WV

Planning Cross-Age Tutoring Programs for Special Students in Rural Settings
by Beth Frank
at Hobart & William Smith College, Geneva, NY

Identification of Speech, Language, & Hearing Disorders in Rural Schools --Early Intervention Through Teacher Awareness
by Thomas A. Crowe
at The University of Mississippi, University, MS

Services for Siblings & Extended Families of the Developmentally Disabled in Rural America
by Sally Burton
at University of Idaho, Moscow, ID

Exceptional Teaching in Rural Areas
by Rhea Schwartz
at Florida A & M University, Tallahassee, FL

Working With Communication Disorders In Rural Settings
by Ann-Beth Deily
at The College of Saint Rose, Albany, NY

Other Module Applications in Final Approval Stages

J. Preston Prather and Robert L. Hartshorn
Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of
Science and Mathematics Education
205H Gooch Hall, School of Education
The University of Tennessee at Martin
Martin, Tennessee 38238

A LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM FOR IMPROVEMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCIENCE INSTRUCTION IN RURAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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Abstract

The University of Tennessee at Martin's Program for the Enrichment of Science Instruction in Elementary Schools in Rural Tennessee was designed to generate critically needed local teams of educational leaders for the improvement of elementary science instruction within rural school systems. The program accommodated nine 4-member teams consisting of two elementary teachers, their building principal, and their instructional supervisor from nine geographically dispersed rural school systems that expressed a willingness to make a commitment to teaching elementary science.

The project comprised two parts: 1) an Elementary Science Education Institute, which provided an intensive program of academic preparation for the teams; and 2) a Field Phase, carried out by the teams in their respective school systems and educational development districts during the following school year. The Institute included instruction in science, science teaching methods, career development, computer literacy, leadership development, and educational program planning and development. Each team was required to plan an independent field project tailored to the elementary science education needs and resources of its school system.

Following the Institute, each team implemented its field project. Each team was also prepared to train other teams within its own and other school systems in anticipation of a "ripple effect" of local leadership development culminating in improvement of elementary science instruction throughout the state.

(Following the presentation of this paper, the presentors reported on the nature and status of the teams' field projects and discussed other benefits of the program for rural schools. This session of the conference concluded with suggestions for planning and developing team leadership programs within the context of local educational needs and resources.)

The Problem Of Elementary Science Education

There is a need for improvement of science education in the United States (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Existing curricula and instruction have been declared largely inadequate, and there is intense pressure for reform

(Hurd, 1986). Three major studies in the late 1970s indicated that the problem is especially severe within the field of elementary instruction (National Science Foundation, 1978). Although it was once a national priority, elementary science instruction now receives little emphasis in many schools (Mechlin and Oliver, 1983). Many elementary teachers feel unqualified to teach science and either devote little time to science instruction or ignore it [National Science Teachers Association (NSTA), 1983]. A national survey further revealed that participation of elementary teachers in National Science Foundation (NSF) programs for teachers has been very low. This may be largely attributable to the fact that most NSF programs are discipline-specific, whereas elementary teachers are typically generalists and teach all academic subjects (Weiss, 1978).

One major study concluded that, given the current low level of interest and understanding of science among most elementary teachers, few students were likely to experience even one year of substantial science instruction in grades K-6 (Stake and Easley, 1978). Under such conditions, most of the nation's youth would be deprived of the immediate benefits of science education during the formative elementary years when they may benefit most from the thinking skills and learning processes promoted by science study. This also represents a serious long-range threat to a culture wherein the average citizen's competency for living, working, and decision-making is increasingly dependent upon a basic understanding of the nature and social relationship of science and technology.

Children are naturally inquisitive, and many of the things that interest them are relevant scientific concerns. This is especially the case in rural environments where children may experience a great diversity of natural processes. Studies in cognitive psychology revealed that children at a very early age form complex preconceptions about natural phenomena, such as the relationship of force and motion, in an effort to make sense of their everyday experiences (Ault, 1984; Clement, 1982; Driver, 1983). Scientifically sound preconceptions constitute a basis for subsequent science learning; but research has revealed that many ideas formed in this manner are actually misconceptions based on intuition, perceptual illusion, naive inferences, incorrect logic, or inadequate information. Unless such notions are met with a sufficient challenge from worldly experience to require their serious reconsideration, they may form the basis for deeply entrenched cognitive frameworks by which future encounters with nature are mediated.

Research has further indicated that some of the more common misconceptions are not readily displaced by exposure to more adequate concepts through formal science instruction, especially if they have been held for a long period of time (Caramazza, McCloskey, and Green, 1981; Clement, 1982; Eaton, Anderson, and Smith, 1983; McCloskey, 1983, 1984; McCloskey and Kohl, 1983). Clement, for example, found that some of the more common naive notions of science were so deeply entrenched until they persisted through college science training, even among the majority of science and engineering students. Consequently, naive scientific beliefs, many of them developed through the natural curiosity that characterizes the early childhood years, represent a serious threat to science education in an era when science education is critical. An effective program of systematic science instruction beginning in kindergarten is needed to counter that threat.

The Program For Enrichment Of Science Instruction In Elementary Schools In Rural Tennessee

The challenge of elementary science education is clear: "We must insure appropriate science education for all citizens" (NSTA, 1982, p. 1). Changing times place changing demands on society, and society in turn places changing demands on education to provide learning experiences suited to those changing times. Changing societal expectations of education in Tennessee precipitated new legislation culminating in the Comprehensive Education Reform Act of 1984. The Tennessee Board of Education established that state's expectations regarding science education by adopting a Science Curriculum Framework for grades K-12, which mandated a student-activity, hands-on science instructional approach for all students.

Expectations regarding elementary science education were further affirmed in the Rules, Regulations, and Minimum Standards for the Governance of Public Schools in the State of Tennessee: Book One (1986), which required that "science shall be included in each grade K-6. The time requirement must be sufficient to teach the objectives for each grade as required in the state science framework" (p. 24). From the state curriculum framework, which was planned by a statewide committee of science educators, the State Department of Education developed a Science Curriculum Guide. Each local school system was required either to adopt the state curriculum guide or develop an approved version of their own as a basis for implementing a science program that was compatible with the mandated curriculum.

The UTM Center of Excellence for Enrichment of Science and Mathematics Education (CEESME) was instrumental in developing the Science Curriculum Guide. While visiting school systems to explain the guide, the CEESME staff found intense concern among elementary schools for three reasons: Most lacked an adequate supply of science teachers to implement a program of the scope required; few elementary teachers felt comfortable with the idea of hands-on science teaching, which was very different from the way they themselves had been taught science in high school and college; and no elementary text could be located that adequately addressed the mandated science curriculum. Furthermore, most rural elementary schools in UTM's immediate service area had very few up-to-date science texts. Given the mandate to teach science and environmental education, many elementary teachers expressed intense concern about the lack of adequate science-related materials on which to base their instructional planning.

To help overcome this problem, CEESME developed a seven-volume Science Activities Manual K-6, with the cooperation of twenty-four experienced elementary science teachers from Northwest Tennessee. The manual reflected the balance of informal, activity-oriented learning experiences and formal instruction recommended by constructivist learning theorists such as Driver, McCloskey, and Piaget (1950, 1970); and it was correlated to the terminal instructional objectives of the state curriculum guide. While developing the manual, however, it quickly became obvious that, for a successful transition to the new direction in science education, more than new curricular materials would be required.

Most teachers, especially elementary teachers with little or no training in science instruction methods, would require training in the activity-oriented, hands-on instructional methodology on which both the Tennessee Science Curriculum Guide and CEESME's Science Activities Manual were based. Otherwise, there remained a tendency for teachers to attempt to interpret and employ the manuals and other resources in terms of the traditional, student-passive instruction that characterized most science instruction they themselves had received. To help teachers deal with this and other problems of elementary science education, the CEESME staff simultaneously developed a program for training elementary science teachers. Initial research and planning for the program, however, revealed another problem--a problem that is characteristic of many, probably most, rural school systems.

The Rural Dimension of the Problem

Review of the condition of science education in Tennessee confirmed a need for extensive improvement throughout the state. Consultations with representatives of the State Department of Education (SDE) and local education agencies (LEAs) indicated that, as with schools across the nation, the need is more severe in the elementary grade levels. Further review revealed another dimension of the problem in the predominantly rural areas of the state. Most rural school systems lacked a supervisor of science instruction or other qualified science consultant to facilitate the in-service training and other activity needed to deal with the situation, and some systems had only a part-time supervisor responsible for all subject areas.

On that basis, CEESME elected to focus on a program to help rural Tennessee schools develop the local leadership resources needed to plan and initiate elementary science education programs in compliance with the State mandate. Subsequent program planning revealed that, in addition to training in science content and instructional methodology, the program should equip local educators with the in-service training skills and knowledge of the principles of educational planning and administration that would be required to plan, establish, and maintain effective elementary science programs in isolated rural school systems. It was further determined that such an objective could best be achieved through training of teams of local educators to provide the comprehensive sort of leadership and resourcefulness needed within the rural educational arena.

The Concept of Team Leadership Development

A review of research over the past three decades indicated that billions of dollars had been devoted to in-service teacher training and other programs for the improvement of pre-college science instruction, all with very disappointing results (Yager, 1981). A new approach to science teacher training was obviously indicated, and the CEESME staff took this as an initial project objective. The problem with teacher education, it appeared, was not necessarily a problem of either the quality or content of the NSF programs or the dedication and preparation of teachers, but rather of local support for educational reform. Many teachers returned to their institutions with increased skills and enthusiasm for constructive change, but found local education agencies less than receptive to their ideas because of a basic lack of understanding of science and the resources required for effective science instruction.

Numerous studies indicated the critical importance of the building principal's support in the success of any school program, but those same studies indicated that "many principals feel uncomfortable, even inadequate, with science. . . . While many principals want to improve science in their school's curriculum, they wonder how and where to begin" (Mechlin and Oliver, 1982 p. 4). The CEESME staff therefore determined that inclusion of the building principal along with classroom teachers in a science training program would help to insure the administrative input and support required for success in educational reform. Whereas large school systems generally have trained science specialists to assess local needs and resources and provide leadership in facilitating the administrative support and in-service training programs necessary to implement educational reform, most rural systems do not. It appeared equally important that the system supervisor of instruction should also participate in the training program to insure an understanding of science education within that key dimension of the administrative structure.

CEESME therefore decided that an effective program for enrichment of science education in rural school systems would require that both the instructional and administrative skills needed for reform be developed simultaneously within the existing structure of local educational leadership. Further consideration of the problem indicated that such an objective should be more readily attainable through joint training of teams of elementary teachers, principals, and supervisors of instruction from rural school systems willing to make a commitment to elementary science education. Although conceived from the perspective of elementary science education, the strategy for developing a strong nucleus of leadership within the local school system should be applicable to all levels of school science instruction and to many other subject areas in small rural or otherwise isolated school systems.

Development Of The Project

For reasons discussed in the previous paragraphs, the concept of team leadership development was considered key to building an effective program for the improvement of elementary science instruction in rural schools. Development of teams to provide the local leadership needed for planning, implementation, and maintenance of such a program would require training in the fields of science content and instruction, in-service training techniques, leadership, educational planning and administration, and computer education. These topics comprised the general curricular framework for the project.

A synthesis of research and evaluation in science education by the U. S. General Accounting Office (GAO) suggested that programs to retrain teachers in other subjects to teach science and mathematics seemed to be a viable approach toward overcoming the immediate teacher shortage in those fields. This was supportive of CEESME's long-standing goal of providing teachers interested in teaching science and mathematics with in-service opportunities to improve their content preparation and instructional skills. The GAO (1984) report also indicated that "retraining programs sponsored by state education agencies (SEA's) and local education agencies (LEA's) tend to have higher retention rates than university programs" (p. iii). "The higher retention experienced by SEA and LEA programs is most likely attributable to more careful screening of applicants and to the fact that they are offered at little or no cost to participants " (p. 52). Further examination of the basis of those observations led to the conclusions that the project should be offered tuition-free and an independent selection committee should screen the team applications.

Review of research on science education and assessment of the needs of the UTM service area therefore indicated that a combination of the university's teacher-education resources with features of SEA and LEA sponsored programs that contribute to enhanced teacher participation and retention would be appropriate. Working from that context, the project was conceived in terms of three training cycles, with each involving different groups of teams, over a three-year period. Each cycle comprised two parts: 1) an Elementary Science Education Institute, which would provide an intensive program of academic preparation for the participating teams; and 2) a Field Phase, to be carried out by the teams in their respective school systems and educational development districts during the following school year. A support system was planned to nurture the teams' field efforts throughout the year.

Planning for the academic portion of the project indicated that approximately 40 six-hour days of on-campus instruction would be required for each program cycle. To accomplish this in a manner compatible with both the need for prompt training of elementary science teachers and the in-service schedules of the anticipated participants would require a relatively short, intensive program schedule. The GAO (1984) report, however, indicated that "in the absense of substantial scholarship and subsistence payments, short and intensive programs seem to attract few students" (p. 56). To help overcome this problem, a line-item for per diem to help defray student expenses was added to the budget, and provision for an honorarium was included for each person completing the Institute. A proposal for a project containing these and the features discussed in the preceding paragraphs was developed and submitted to the National Science Foundation (NSF) and Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC). The project was funded, and program preparations began in Fall, 1986.

Conduct Of The Project

Recruitment for the initial cycle of the project focused on rural or small school systems in the Northwest, Southwest, and Mid-Cumberland Educational Development Districts of Tennessee. Superintendents from eligible school systems were asked to recommend teams, within the guidelines for team structure, consisting of teachers interested in science education and administrators having a collegial working relationship with those teachers. The CEESME staff visited interested school systems to explain the project. Team applications were processed and submitted to a screening committee that included elementary science teachers, elementary school principals, system superintendents, science educators, and representatives of the State Department of Education and the Science Association of Tennessee.

A full roster of nine 4-member teams was recruited from geographically dispersed rural school systems, with three coming from the Southwest area, three from the Northwest district, and three from the Mid-Cumberland district. Each team consisted of a primary (grades K-3) and an intermediate (grades 4-6) teacher, their principal, and their system's supervisor of instruction or other official who would be responsible for supervision of elementary science instruction. Grant funds provided for employment of an exemplary elementary science teacher from each of the three educational service districts to serve as field supervisors and assist the CEESME staff in coordinating a support system for local team activities in each district. The field supervisors received the same academic training as the team members, making a total of 39 participants.

The Elementary Science Education Institute (ESEI), the academic portion of the program, began on February 7, 1987. At the UTM campus, 168 hours of classroom instruction were provided in science (physics, chemistry, the life sciences, and earth and space science), environmental education, science curriculum and methods of instruction, computer science education, research and planning of educational programs, leadership and communication, and career development. Each team also was required to research and plan a one-year field project for improvement of elementary science instruction based on independent, on-site research. Fifty-two hours of supervised field research and planning was devoted to the field projects. A per diem of $40 was provided for each participant. An honorarium of $2,000 and fifteen hours graduate academic credit, with all tuition costs paid from grant funds, were also provided each participant upon her/his successful completion of the academic training.

Nine-hour class sessions were scheduled on alternate weekends through May, with the local field work scheduled between sessions. The remainder of the Institute was conducted in six-hour daily sessions concluding on June 24, 1987. Activities such as microteaching were assigned during the February-May sessions when the team members would be able to conduct science classes in their schools. Most of the instruction in science and computer education was scheduled during June, when the participants would be able to pursue those studies on a daily basis. Science academicians and science educators provided instruction on science content, curriculum, and instructional methods. Authors of the Science Activities Manual provided about 25 model lessons from the manual. Whenever possible, authors of documents such as the Tennessee Instructional Model were employed to provide instruction on the use of those materials. In most sessions, the group was divided into two or three parts to allow greater discussion and participation in hands-on science activities. Although this multiplied the staffing and spatial requirements, the increased individual involvement was considered essential to the success of the program.

A portable microteaching unit was provided for each team's use in critiquing their local efforts to improve instructional techniques. Participants were required to prepare and videotape lessons from the Science Activities Manual. They were required to review the videotapes and critique their own lessons, using a set of criteria based on the standards for Career Ladder evaluation. The tapes were then submitted for jury review by a team of highly qualified teacher evaluators. This enabled teachers to compare their self-evaluations with assessments of their performance by a panel of experienced teacher evaluators. Many teachers found that their self-assessments conformed in large part to the jury reviews, which produced increased confidence in their capacities for self-improvement. The teams also found the microteaching units very helpful for preparation of professional presentations, in-service projects, and programs for local civic groups.

A primary objective of the project was to produce teams of local educational leaders capable of assessing the need for and providing in-service training activities within their school systems and ultimately throughout their educational development districts. In keeping with the concept of team development on which the project was conceived, no distinction was made between administrators and teachers in the training process. Both took part in all facets of the training, including preparation and presentation of lessons from the Science Activities Manual. The teams were provided copies of and instruction in the use of the Tennessee Instructional Model, the Tennessee Career Development Program, and other materials appropriate to their preparation for in-service training activities. As the training progressed, the three field supervisors were worked into positions of increasing programmatic responsibility toward the teams with which they would be working in their districts over the coming school year.

Several techniques were employed to mesh the teams into a close-knit network of leaders of elementary science education for rural settings. To promote team solidarity, travel reimbursement was provided for only one vehicle per team to encourage members to commute to class sessions together. In addition to producing the desired camaraderie between the teachers and administrators, this arrangement also encouraged group study. To promote interaction between teams and encourage their cooperation in promoting elementary science education throughout their educational development districts, the participants were systematically regrouped throughout the Institute to allow teachers and administrators to work with members of teams other than their own. Beginning about midpoint of the Institute, teams from each education service area were increasingly grouped into three-team units with their field supervisors to encourage a sense of unity and common purpose within each district.

To promote recognition of their local leadership potential, a public information program was conducted in each team's home area to acquaint the public with the training they were receiving and to introduce their team's plans for improvement of elementary science education. Because of this publicity and the widespread interest generated by their research (several teams conducted extensive surveys), the nine teams were invited to host a special conference of the Science Association of Tennessee (SAT) at UTM and present their ideas to a statewide audience. The invitation was accepted and each team presented a one-hour program. The conference evaluation indicated enthusiastic reception of their work, with written comments applauding the grass-roots origins and development of their ideas. Perhaps more than any other single factor, this activity helped the teams realize their capacity for creative program development and recognize their potential for educational leadership.

As part of the training, each team was prepared to assume a comprehensive in-service training role, beginning in their local school system. Instruction in the principles of adult education was provided to help them prepare to train other teams in anticipation of a "ripple effect" culminating in improved elementary science instruction throughout the State. By the beginning of the 1987-88 school year, each team had implemented its field project. In most cases, those projects involved conducting an extensive program of in-service training in their schools. In anticipation of this, grant funds were obtained to facilitate employment of qualified substitute teachers for those times that a team's two teachers may be required to be away from the classroom on team-related activities.

Benefits of the Project

Each participating school system gained a unique resource through the project--a team of educators cognizant of both the instructional and administrative dimensions of educational program development. By working hand-in-hand with their teachers, the administrators gained an understanding of how science is taught and the sort of support their teachers need to do an effective job. Likewise, the teachers gained invaluable insight into the administrative resources and limitations relevant to their work. The resultant clearer channels of communication alone should help those school systems to overcome many hurdles in their quest for better science education.

At the date of this conference, the field phase of the project was not sufficiently underway to provide definitive data regarding the impact of the teams' training and field activities on the local science education arena. Pre- and post-institute tests on science content and other dimensions of the training were administered to the participants, and additional testing is scheduled in the 1987-88 academic year to further assess such items as content retention and teacher and student attitudes toward science. However, other immediate benefits may be cited.

Teams were encouraged to prepare and disseminate periodic news releases on their research and planning activities to inform the public of local science education needs and opportunities. As a result of such publicity, several teams were invited to explain their ideas to local business, civic, and social groups. It is anticipated that the resultant increased public awareness and support for elementary science education will rank among the most important benefits to participating local school systems.

Near the mid-point of the Institute, a team from the Mid-Cumberland Development District informed their superintendent of their enthusiasm for the approach to science instruction promoted by the Institute. Their superintendent asked them to consider conducting an immediate in-service training program to introduce the Science Activities Manual and hands-on science instructional methods to elementary teachers throughout the school system. The team accepted the opportunity and conducted a three-day program in early June. The team then presented a seminar for the Institute in which they shared their experiences and assisted other teams in preparing for similar in-service programs. By the end of the Institute, two additional teams had arranged and conducted local in-service programs of this nature; and the remaining six teams had scheduled similar system-wide programs for late Summer or early Fall. Through their field supervisors, the nine teams established a communications network to keep each other informed of other ideas for activities that may be replicated.

Participating school systems therefore found within their own ranks the grass-roots leadership and in-service training capability necessary to meet an immediate need related to the required new direction in elementary science education. The teams and their field supervisors have received requests to provide in-service programs for a large number of other rural school systems facing that same challenge. The self-initiated activities of the teams constituted early realization of the potential for effective educational reform implicit in the concept of local team leadership development. Likewise, the many requests for assistance from other schools signals a growing confidence that the educational establishment can marshall the resources for effective reform within its own ranks.

Examination of the individual team projects (which will be reviewed during presentation of this paper at the conference) will reveal another major benefit to the participating schools. During the first class session, many team members expressed dismay at the prospect of obtaining the funding required to purchase the complex and expensive materials and equipment they perceived necessary for their schools to develop effective student-activity oriented science programs. Much of that concern was alleviated, however, by subsequent research of local science education needs and resources. The subsequent consensus among the teams was that many problems that once appeared insurmountable were largely the product of a basic lack of understanding of the nature of science and how to teach it, and that the problems of elementary science education could be effectively met largely within the scope of their systems' current resources.

An informal survey of participants during the initial session further indicated that, although all believed that effective elementary science education was vital, only about 26 percent felt confident of their ability to teach science in a way that would meet the new state requirements. However, near the end of the Institute a similar survey indicated that 100 percent of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed that they could plan and teach effective hands-on science lessons that would fulfill the new curricular requirements for elementary science education. This change of attitude was attributed largely to their better understanding of the basis for the new curricular emphasis and their experience in preparing and presenting lessons from the Science Activities Manual.

The program has also generated new options in an area of widespread educational concern that may benefit educators across the state and nation. Evaluation of teacher performance for purposes of merit pay or career ladder advancement is a source of controversy in many states. One of the major issues is the cost of the evaluation process per se. The jury review procedure of teacher evaluation, which was developed for the Institute by CEESME and the Instructional Strategies Assessment Center (ISAC) at UTM, was acclaimed by the Jury Review Panel as a highly efficient methodology that provided an unprecedented level of feedback and incentive for self improvement. The Institute participants were surveyed regarding their attitudes toward possible use of such a process for purposes of Career Ladder evaluation. Their receptive response prompted a statewide survey of teachers and educational administrators. Based on the reponse to that survey, the State Department of Education instituted a pilot program to test the effectiveness and cost-efficiency of the process.

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MOTIVATIVE TEACHING
How to Win Kids and Influence Receptive Attitudes

Students' attitudes determine their success in school more than any other factor. Academic failure, discipline, truancy, and dropping out--the nemeses of today's educators are all more resultant of low motivation than all other factors combined. "Moivative Teaching" represents motivational techniques collected from observations of classroom performances of hundreds of rural teachers. It is, in part, the report of a study made to determine what successful teachers do that turns kids on to education and what teachers do to academically disaffect students. The resulting accumulated set of suggested techniques -- Motivative Teaching -- can be applied successfully by most teachers, K-12, to improve the attitudes of kids toward academic learning, to deter discipline problems and truancy, and to increase retention.

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School Partnerships in Education
a Rural Consortium

INTRODUCTION

The development of partnership activities between the higher education and public school community has received increasing interest and emphasis over the past five years. This interdependence between universities and their colleagues in the public school sector has received recognition as a valuable activity that would lead to the enhancement of educational efforts in both sectors. From our perspective, developing partnerships in a rural area has been profitable in developing new programs, enhancing faculty skills, and increasing community involvement. In this symposium, we will provide an overview of the planning process that must take place in establishing successful partnerships in a rural area.

When launching a partnership, all concerned must be able to convince a wide sector of the community that such programs are both cost effective and will lead to more successful educational programming. By providing such a rationale early, the type of support needed from the public and business community will be easier to secure.

As part of developing a partnership in a rural area, it is important that regional demographics be fully reviewed and understood by all participating groups. In the presentation an overview of the region, which will focus on demographics and unique regional characteristics, will be provided. The forming of partnerships in the rural area must take into account isolation, transportation issues, and distance between schools and the university. In particular, this two-county area encompasses eleven school districts, two area vocational technical schools and one major university providing a variety of advanced programs for candidates pursuing post-secondary study.

In response to President Reagan's Proclamation of 1983 as the National Year of Partnerships in Education, the President of Indiana University of Pennsylvania, the Dean of the College of Education, the Executive Director of the Armstrong and Indiana Counties' Intermediate Unit #28 (ARIN), and the eleven superintendents of the school districts in Armstrong/Indiana counties met to discuss ways to develop and improve linkages with higher education, basic education, and the community. A Steering Committee (key individuals, decison-makers) was formed in October 1983 and charged with the identification of ways and means of pooling resources to improve the educational process. To date the Steering Committee has initiated over forty projects involving IUP, the Intermediate Unit, and the eleven school districts. The round-table discussion will present the results of this partnership from an administrative, funding, and programmatic view.

DEVELOPING PARTNERSHIPS

As cited earlier, planned collaboration among higher education, basic education, and the community challenges all parties to share the benefits of partnerships. Enlisting the active involvement of the community is a rewarding and effective way of gaining understanding and support for elementary and secondary education. Also, working with schools provides higher education with practical input for course and curriculum development. It permits faculty to interact with their colleagues in the public sector for the improvement of teaching.

It is important in developing partnerships that a Steering Committee work diligently to involve educators from both higher education and basic education in planning, organizing and delivering a program for the improvement of schooling in the rural area. Throughout the past three years, the Steering Committee has initiated over forty projects involving IUP departments, the Intermediate Unit, and the eleven school districts. Students at the primary, secondary, and college levels, adult learners, teachers, school administrators, and the business community have been drawn into the partnership activities. The Committee has evaluated and revised curricula, and developed new programs. Teachers and administrators have received advanced training in clinical supervision, and the business community has actively supported the educational programs for students.

It is not enough to have cogent reasons for schools and businesses to work together in developing partnerships and programs for the improvement of schooling. Maintaining the initiative and drive needed for continuation calls for careful planning and marshalling of resources to support all efforts. A partnership venture requires strong committment and leadership from several sectors if it is to succeed. In particular, the School Superintendent, the President of the University, and the Dean of the College must be highly visible in providing support to the efforts of those who volunteer their work. It is critical to address questions of need for partnerships and preparing in advance for projects and the activities that will take place. As well-documented by Susan Otterbourg (1986), it will be necessary to assess needs and resources, secure committments, form committees, and determine possible solutions as the work begins. Well-developed partnerships will include the following:

Advisory Committee

Partnership Staff

Record-keeping Procedures

Program Activities

Evaluation and Reporting Procedures

The business community in particular will be be interested in how their funds are used and the results in relation to impact on the number of children and adults served by the partnership.

In summary, the historical background of prior university efforts in participating in partnerships and their success in fostering work relations with public school staff and administrators is critical. Professional exchanges over the past three years have been most rewarding for participants in these partnership efforts and the committment for continued development continues.

ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES FOR MANAGING PARTNERSHIPS

We recognize that good will and a positive attitude toward forming partnerships are responsible for success, but this will not necessarily guarantee achievement. Each partner will have to address political, economic and administrative factors that exist within the local community. The advisory committee must translate the ideals and vision that arise in partnerships into concrete activities. Each administrative unit within the partnerships must manage the people involved, acquire resources, deal with organizational policies, and know how to change policies that hinder innovative collaboration. The administrative team in each unit must work diligently to secure internal committment and a positive view toward the partnership.

It is often difficult for administrators working in public schools to balance the needs and pressures of their own unique environment with the pressures that occur in the university sector. Administrators from each segment must be careful to balance their needs with the competing needs of the other institution in developing the partnership. Frank and open communication of specific concerns will lead to well-designed projects that meet the needs of both parties. At a minimum, the Advisory Committee should meet at least once every six weeks for sustaining the momentum needed for bringing partnership activities to a successful conclusion. One cannot simply believe in a partnership as a cause, but must be willing to make committments and convince others within their organization that it is vital for the institutions to work together. It requires a rare combination of vision, fortitude, and patience to lead a partnership to a successful conclusion. Many of the administrative issues will focus on staffing, funding, securing community support, balancing school policies with release time, and other administrative issues. The administrative team must learn how to balance existing personnel needs and existing policy structures effectively and appropriately to bring the partnership to a successful conclusion. In the model developed within our two-county area we have managed to bridge the gap between rural distance and the resource base of the university to enrich the lives of many students in our partnership.

RESULTS

As mentioned earlier, we have initiated over forty different partnership activities during the past three years and have begun to plan an academic alliance for the fall of 1987 with the Geography Department at IUP and the eleven participating public schools. A sampling of several of the projects are as follows, and more complete details are available in the report which will be distributed at the conference. Several of the major projects are as follows:

1. ARIN-IUP Mentorship Project where IUP faculty in mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry and computer programming act as mentors for high ability tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade students.

2. The IUP University School provided opportunity to mainstream children enrolled in ARIN Intermediate Unit's Special Education Programs. Operated by IUP, the faculty consists of both public school certified teachers and University professors and has access to IUP's College of Education and Departments of Special Education and Speech and Language.

3. IUP-Indiana County Schools English Co-Teaching Project is an inservice training program for English teachers which provided opportunity for teachers to increase their knowledge of current teaching methodologies. Teachers work with IUP faculty on a weekly basis.

4. TEAMS, Technology Enhanced Activities in Mathematics and Science, provides inservice training to help teachers upgrade their teaching programs, illustrating changes in modern science, mathematics and technology. This program has received continued funding from the National Science Foundation and by an ECIA Chapter II grant.

5. The Principal's Assessment Center, a part of IUP's College of Education, is designed to objectively evaluate potential principal candidates and aid school districts in making hiring decisions. It is one of a network of 27 centers across the country developed through the efforts of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

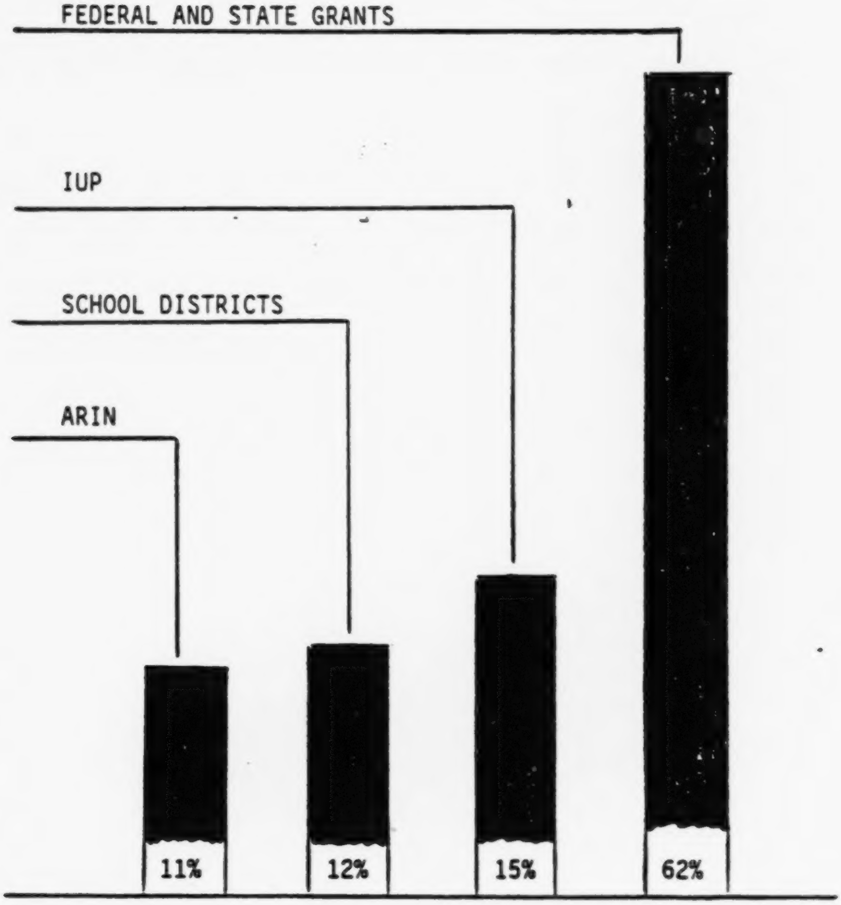

CHART 1 Financial Contributions To The Partnership

Also, the financial support for these efforts has resulted in over $740,000 being generated from four major sources (see chart 1).

SUMMARY

The focus of this partnership was the development of realistic ventures that would involve public school professionals in collaborative planning with university and community representatives. The practical implications of such a partnership have brought recognition and reward to all those involved. They have also impacted funding, curriculum, administrative decision making and planning in the institutions that have participated to date. While we live and work in a rural area, we feel that the gap has been bridged in bringing the public school, community and university much closer together. We are optimistic as we face the future and begin to initiate new endeavors to keep the partnership thriving.

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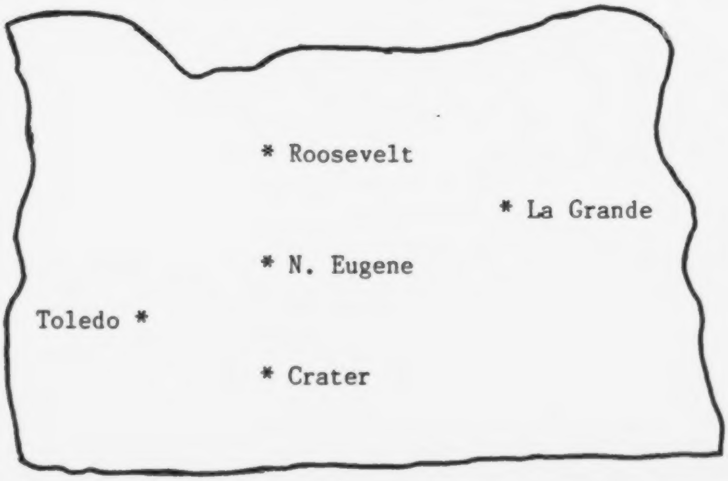
A SCHOOL DISTRICT-SCHOOL OF NURSING ALLIANCE TO DECREASE HEALTH RISKS IN A RURAL EASTERN OREGON ADOLESCENT POPULATION

ADOLESCENT HEALTH PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION

In recognition of the increasing health problems within the adolescent population in Oregon, the State legislature targeted monies in 1985 to finance adolescent health services to this at risk population in several demonstrative projects throughout the state. Grant applications were reviewed and five high school programs were selected for implementation - La Grande, North Eugene, Crater, Toledo High Schools and Roosevelt High School located in Portland, Oregon.



The purpose of the grant monies was to address the actual or potential health problems of adolescents, primarily in the areas of substance abuse (alcohol, drug, tobacco smoking and chewing), suicide and depression, sexually transmitted diseases, unplanned pregnancies and the promotion of healthy lifestyles. The adolescent population in La Grande High School mirrored the statewide statistics in the targeted areas. School officials, students, parents and health professionals in the community were committed to developing a quality adolescent health program to serve the adolescents in the La Grande community.

The original grant application was a cooperative effort by the La Grande School District, Union County Health Department and OHSU School of Nursing. Due to several administrative issues and legislative dictates the La Grande High School became the grant recipient. They elected to subcontract with the School of Nursing and to work cooperatively with the local health department for selected services.

The manner in which adolescent services are provided to the 900 students at La Grande High School differ from the other four demonstration programs. The other four adolescent health programs provide a clinic staffed by nurse practitioners to assess and treat health problems within their scope of practice. This includes conducting physical exams, treating communicable diseases, pregnancy testing, and dispensing contraceptives. In respect for the cultural and religious values of the local community and the abundance of private physicians in the area, a registered nurse with adolescent and community health background was hired to provide a generalized health promotion and disease prevention focus with outside referrals to community agencies and private practitioners for treatment purposes.

La Grande, Oregon is a community of about 13,000 population. It is the county seat for Union County located in rural northeastern Oregon. La Grande is nestled in the beautiful Grande Ronde Valley, surrounded by the Wallowa Mountains and Eagle Cap Wilderness area to the east and the Blue Mountain range to the west. Agriculture, logging and Eastern Oregon State College are the primary industries in the valley. The closest metropolitan areas of Boise, Idaho or Tri-Cities, Washington are about 150 miles away and Portland, Oregon is 260 miles from La Grande. The majority of people are of a conservative, independent persuasion, caucasian and adhere to Protestant, Morman and Catholic religious ideals. There is a mix of highly trained professional people, struggling farmers and loggers, senior citizens on fixed incomes and families with no wage earners.

The Oregon Health Sciences University School of Nursing in Portland, Oregon established an outreach campus in cooperation with Eastern Oregon State College in 1979. This outreach program became the only baccalaureate nursing program in all of Eastern and Central Oregon. The program was established to provide professional nurses to an underserved area of the state and aid in the retention of qualified nurses in Eastern Oregon. To date, approximately 70% of nursing graduates locate in the rural area. Clinical experiences for nursing students are obtained in a variety of community agencies including the La Grande School District. The School of Nursing has an expectation that faculty maintain their nursing clinical skills in their area of expertise. Because of the educational orientation of both the high school and the School of Nursing as well as the nursing expertise available through the School of Nursing faculty it was advantageous for an alliance to be formed in the provision of adolescent health services.

In developing the contract for services between the La Grande School District and the OHSU SON at EOSC the following points were agreed upon:

1. The La Grande School District was the direct grantee from the State Health Division. The School District would have the overall program management

responsibility for project services delegated to the superintendent. The School District would be required to respond to all State Health Division fiscal and program reports. The State Health Division would make reimbursement payments directly to the School District.

2. The School District would subcontract with the School of Nursing for the provision of services in La Grande High School. The agreement between the School District and the School of Nursing would assign all responsibility for management of clinical services to the School of Nursing. The School District would make equal monthly payments to the School of Nursing for their professional staff which included a baccalaureate prepared Registered Nurse at 0.6 FTE and 0.2 FTE for supervision from the program director and clinic supervisor. The monies to the School of Nursing also included travel for inservice education and necessary medical equipment such as otoscope and blood pressure equipment. For ease of disbursement the School District retained the grant monies in their budget for the payment of medical services for needy students, district travel for home visits made by the nurse, and paper, medical and audio-visual supplies for the program. No secretarial services were included in the original grant. These services were provided in kind by the School district and School of Nursing.

3. The contract with the School of Nursing would clearly identify its responsibilities for hiring of staff, development of medical protocols and procedures, establishment of a referral system including the purchase of medical care, the development of follow up and monitoring procedures, and arrangements for medical backup/consultation.

Upon receiving positive assurance of grant funding an advisory committee was formed comprised of the School of Nursing faculty, School District personnel, a parent, student, School Board and health department representative for a total of nine members. The advisory committee assists in the development of policy and is a sounding board to the program. Candidates for the adolescent health nurse position were interviewed by the advisory committee and a selection made with the School of Nursing retaining an overriding veto if necessary. Fortunately, this was not required and the adolescent health nurse was hired to begin in August 1986 for the first year of the adolescent health program.

The adolescent health nurse with guidance and consultation from School of Nursing and School District personnel developed the following:

1. A liaison role with a consulting physician in the community to provide approval of medical protocols and on call consultation with the nurse. The physician was paid a retainer fee for the year and was reimbursed directly by the School District.

2. Medical protocol covering emergencies, and medications to be dispensed (tylenol, epinephrine for bee stings). These were signed by the physician. The adolescent health nurse was required to be certified in CPR and first aid.

3. A confidential system that would provide the State Health Division with statistics on students seen, a daily log for first aid treatments, personal health information data on individual students seen on a continuing basis and group session or classroom activities. These data were kept in a locked file cabinet in the nurse's office.

4. Pertinent health information form filled out by each student regarding any allergies or pre-existing conditions that might require monitoring at school i.e. diabetes, chronic physical handicaps, vision impairments.

5. Orientation presentation to School Board members, and teaching staff and students on the services available from the adolescent nurse.

6. Referral mechanisms to community resources for students who require health care beyond the scope of the adolescent health nurse. This was a form that included the students name, reason for referral, and a place for the outside professional to write their recommendations and identify their charges.

7. Contacted and acquired a list of pnysicians and dentists who were willing to reduce their fees for students requiring payment of services through the grant monies specifically set aside for students who had no other sources of income or insurance to pay for health care. These professionals also volunteered time to assist in health screenings and health promotion activities in the classroom.

8. A mechanism for payment of services to outside professionals authorized by the Adolescent Health Nurse and paid by the School District. This mechanism included assignment of a number by the Adolescent Health Nurse to the payment request that would not identify the student to the School District Business Office in order to protect confidentiality.

9. Arranged with the local health department procedures for referring students needing communicable disease testing, sexually transmitted disease testing, family planning services and contraceptives.

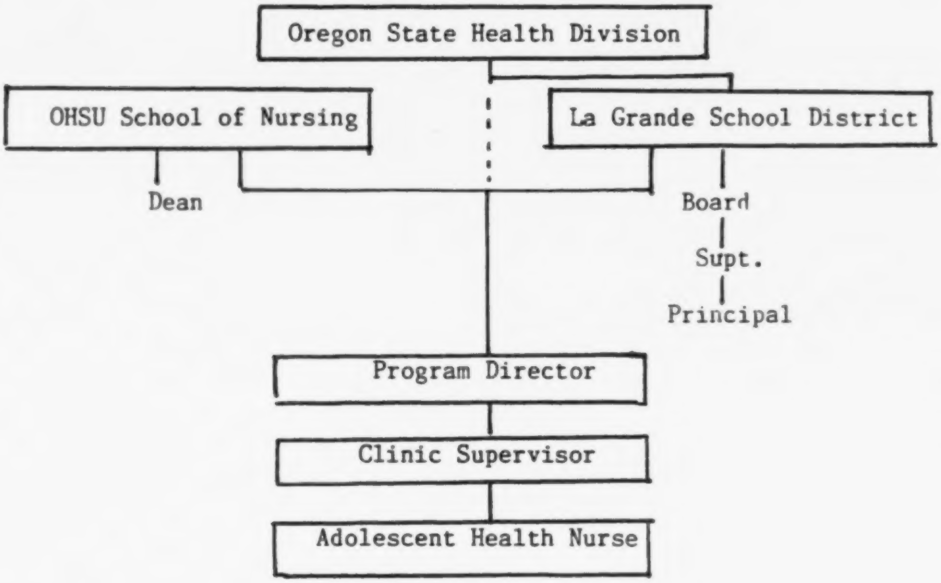
Some restrictions from the State Health Division were placed on grant recipients. Grant monies could not be used for other programs and abortion counseling or referral could not be conducted.

The Adolescent Health Nurse provided emergency first aid assessments and treatments as needed, nursing assessments and counseling in actual or potential health problems, health promotion activities in the classroom or in group sessions with students, conducted screening in scoliosis, vision and dental lip checks. In Oregon, parental consent is not required for birth control or sexually transmitted disease information or services. For other services parental consent is not required for individuals age 15 or over. The Adolescent Health Nurse contacted parents as needed and with the knowledge and permission of each student. She made home visits if appropriate, counseled students and parents regarding a student's health need, participated in IEP meetings and served as a health resource to classroom teachers.

One of the unique benefits to both the School District and the School of Nursing was the placement of student nurses in the high school for their clinical rotation in pediatric, mental health and community health experiences. The School of Nursing faculty worked with the Adolescent Health Nurse in planning and coordinating learning activities for the student nurses that would meet their course requirements as well as enhance the Adolescent Health Program by doing special projects working one on one with a student, teaching specific health education topics in the classroom, and assisting in screening activities. The School of Nursing faculty were also available and involved in provided specialized consultation to the Adolescent Health Nurse and students and teachers upon requests initiated through the Adolescent Health Nurse.

Administratively, the organizational chart is depicted as shown below:

Organization Chart
OHSU - La Grande School District Adolescent Program



The program director is responsible for the general management of the health services. This involves working as a liaison between the School District through the superintendent, high school principal, budget officer and the State Health Division through the school based clinic program manager. This role assures that policy, budget, communication and public relations are maintained. Weekly meetings are held with the Adolescent Health Nurse, clinic supervisor and school personnel as needed.

The clinic supervisor is the Community Health Nursing faculty for the School of Nursing. She assists the Adolescent Health Nurse in developing health programs, screenings, case management of individual student health needs and as a resource for information.

As one might imagine, communication can be a challenge when working through three different agencies. Particular emphasis is paid to this aspect so that no individual in the chain of command is left out or bypassed in the implementation of the program. All pertinent activities, projects, schedules, concerns, and requests for inservice education are cleared through the principal's office. Duplicate memos are initiated for both the School District and School of Nursing. Contact with the State Health Division is primarily done by the Program Director with the knowledge of the School District Superintendent and Principal.

In evaluating the first year of the Adolescent Health Program there was agreement from all parties that the program was successful. Re-application for another year of funding was sought and approved by the State Health Division with an increase of funds to increase the Adolescent Health Nurse to fulltime and to add a parttime secretary.

ADOLESCENT HEALTH PROGRAM CLINICAL COMPONENT

In November of 1986 the Adolescent Health Nurse (AHN), assisted by one of our community health nursing students administered a health risk appraisal (HRA) tool in order to assess the needs of the student body. Much of the original grant was planned prior to any formal school-wide assessment. Thus, one of our goals from the HRA was to determine if, indeed, our original program objectives reflected the true nature of our adolescents' problems. Another aid in getting statistics has been information from the Natural Helper Program at the school. The faculty advisor finds natural helpers, those classmates that students naturally seek out for advise. Although this is a confidential program, statistics are kept on the problems they deal with and have been very useful in planning and reprioritizing the original program objectives.

Our nine objectives will be presented and comments will be made on our findings and the implications for the program.

OBJECTIVE 1: Determine ongoing adolescent health needs from the targeted population.

The HRA tool was administered in the fall of 1986. Strengths and weaknesses from the results were analyzed in January, 1987 and priorities were re-evaluated. This tool had been tested nationally and includes general information, exercise behavior, alcohol, drugs and tobacco use, emotional life, safety, sexuality, and a section on women's health. In the spring, an additional survey was administered and tabulated on appetite disorders since this area of health concerns was missing on the original HRA tool. Eating disorders were not specifically mentioned in the original nine program objectives; however, as the year progressed, the AHN became increasingly aware of the magnitude of the problem through student visits and concerned faculty. (As shown in Table 1, school personnel were entirely justified in their concerns in this area.)

After the results were compiled, the nurse was able to implement health classes on eating disorders; she has proposed a support group for the next school year and, through her efforts at case finding, initiated several referrals to the local mental health clinic which employs a special worker in the area of eating disorders.

OBJECTIVE 2: Increase awareness of substance abuse and identify and refer adolescents in need of assistance.

Because the school district has an abuse team in place, our AHN has become a part of the team and meets with them on a frequent basis. Here again she has been able to implement referral and follow up for students in need of assistance.

The HRA revealed that 69.1 percent of the respondents drink alcoholic beverages 'sometimes' and 'frequently'. Although almost 90 percent indicated they do not smoke, 20.6 percent of students responded that they chew tobacco frequently.

Alcohol, drug and tobacco use/abuse is covered extensively in the health education curriculum. To increase awareness of the problem, the AHN recruited a dentist to do mouth checks on students. Several of those checked had oral tissue changes from chewing tobacco and two were referred for possible biopsies.

OBJECTIVE 3: Promotes healthy lifestyles.

Health promotion is a broad area in which many activities took place. From the HRA, it was found that 47 percent of the students had a family history of high blood pressure and a third had that of cancer. In the final analysis, several safety items gave cause for concern: Seventy percent indicated they often exceed the speed limit; only 12 percent consistently buckled up; about 12 percent said they drive under the influence (6.5 percent rarely, 2.8 percent occasionally and 2.4 percent frequently); and, 85.3 percent responded that it is important to own their motor vehicle. (Table 2, The Eight Leading Causes of Death by Age,Oregon, 1983-1985, shows that accidents are the leading cause of adolescent deaths in Oregon, followed by suicide and cancer.)

One of our interventions for the third objective was to administer a lifestyle questionnaire to students in the health classes. They were given several weeks to make any lifestyle changes that they felt they needed. A follow up session was held in order to collaborate on the changes they had attempted to make.

A ten week class was offered in the fall to students before the first period of the day on stress reduction. Students engaged in an exercise regime followed by discussion on ways to reduce stress, weight control, relating to others and enhancing one's self esteem. In the spring, a student from the school of nursing taught relaxation and techniques of dealing with stress to the health classes. This particular project came as result from the HRA in which 40 percent of the respondents indicated a desire to learn techniques for reducing anxiety and tension.

Another method of meeting objective three was a mass screening in which posture, scoliosis and vision were checked. Next year, the annual screen will also include dental checks and hearing. Lastly, junior nursing students, during their pediatric rotation, were able to reach students by giving classroom presentations and doing activities in the commons e.g. vision checks, safety displays, dental checks, etc.

OBJECTIVE 4: Increase awareness of suicide and depression, and identify and refer adolescents in need of assistance.

The suicide rate among teenagers soared dramatically during the past decades. In Oregon, there was a 4 percent increase in suicide death rates between 1979-1981 and 1983-1985. The most significant increase in the number of suicides occurs at 19 years of age, when most teens are entering the work force. This also reflects the national trend. Suicide is second only to accidents as the leading cause of death among Oregon teenagers. In light of our survey, 30 percent of the student body feels blue and worries much of the time. Nearly 26 percent responded that they have seriously considered killing themselves.

A senior nursing student taught classes on depression and suicide in the fall and a protocol is being worked up which will give the school some guidelines after a suicide attempt, sudden adolescent death, and recognizing students at risk. Interventions will include community networking and offering support groups for those at risk. The Natural Helpers play an important role in identifying students who need assistance dealing with loss, depression and suicidal tendencies.

OBJECTIVE 5: Increase awareness of sexually transmitted disease, and identify and refer adolescents in need of assistance.

OBJECTIVE 6: Increase awareness of communicable disease, and identify and refer adolescents in need of assistance.

All health classes were taught the basics of sexually transmitted disease and communicable disease by the county health nurse. She included graphic slides in her presentations as well as information on AIDS and where to go for diagnosis and treatment of symptoms. Referrals to the health department are made for students who present with symptoms. In terms of prevention, free condoms are readily available in that particular agency.

OBJECTIVE 7: Increase awareness of unplanned pregnancy, and identify and refer adolescents in need of assistance.

Kids and contraceptives is one of the hottest items we have had to deal with, the moral dilemma being how to prevent teen pregnancy (and AIDS). The alarming rate of teenage pregnancy and the inevitable spread of AIDS has raised troubling questions and given new urgency to the debate over how best to protect our children.

The teen pregnancy rate is dramatically higher in the United States than other Western Nations. Even our Union County statistics are higher than our State of Oregon (Table 3). In our HRA results, 14 percent of the girls thought they were pregnant at the time of the survey and 7 percent indicated that they had more than two abortions. Sixty-five percent of the student body indicated they are aware of the birth control methods available to them and 81.3 percent responded that both partners should be responsible for birth control.

Plans for a prenatal and postnatal support group are on the docket for fall. Students are referred to the health department (or their private physician) for contraceptives and further information on birth control. In our particular program, one of the grant assurances is that the nurse does not provide contraceptives nor discuss abortions.

OBJECTIVE 8: Reduce incidence of school days lost by ill students.

We have not evaluated this objective. Our nurse sees students on a regular basis for minor illness, first aid and injury and general health assessments. We have not determined whether or not this reduces or increases the incidence of school days lost. We will develop a computerized system to evaluate this objective in the near future.

OBJECTIVE 9: Act as health resource person to school staff, students, and parents in need of assistance with health concerns.

Our AHN serves as a member of the health curriculum committee and participates on both the substance abuse team as well as the eating disorders council. She spends a good deal of her time in classrooms and in the commons talking to parents and networking with community agencies.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our hunches and speculations were confirmed during the first year of the program. We discovered that resources within the community are adequate in most areas but that significant problems exist. Alcohol, drug and chewing tobacco use, eating disorders, precursors to accidents, emotional problems, and teen pregnancies can be found in significant numbers in our small and isolated rural community of La Grande, Oregon.

ACHIEVING LONG-TERM BENEFITS
FROM INSERVICE TRAINING

Paper presented

at the

Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference

Arlington, Virginia

October 14, 1987

by

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ACHIEVING LONG-TERM BENEFITS FROM INSERVICE TRAINING

ERIC, the Education Resources Information Clearinghouse, lists about 9,400 publications on the topics Inservice Training and Inservice Education. Unfortunately, little is contained there about how effective inservice training is in improving the quality of the learning environment.

My objective today is to share with you what we know about effective teacher training and what conditions should exist in an inservice setting which will heighten the probability that teachers will learn and use the skills necessary to improve the quality of the learning environment that is under their control.

Appropriate teacher control of the basic instructional setting--that is, the classroom--is paramount to good education. Therefore, inservice training must first, last, and always, focus on the improvement of teachers' skills that enhance their ability to control the behavior and instruction of their students. Inservice training must be skill oriented, not simply awareness oriented. Most of what we call "inservice training" is really awareness orientation. Typically, "inservice training" activities begin with words to this effect, "During this two day inservice training we are going to learn about . . . ." Learning "about" something is to heighten one's awareness level. Learning to do something is training. Long-term inservice benefits are realized when the trainee (i.e., the teacher) returns to the classroom in command of a new skill which he or she is able to put into effect in that classroom which produces some type of sustained, predictable, measurable and observable change for the better. Simply going back to the classroom having learned about something does not qualify as a viable product of training. Let me give you an example.

I was recently asked by a small rural public school district that serves a large Native American population to "inservice" the teachers in how to handle behavior problems in the classroom. The inservice setting was typical: Me (the presenter) standing before a hundred and fifty teachers, aids, administrators, and who ever else came wandering in. I was prepared to the teeth: Multi-colored overhead transparencies that had been professionally produced, handouts that were computer generated and sharply printed by our Laser printer, exciting and illustrative examples with which any educator could identify. You name it, and I had it. And the evaluation was wonderful. They didn't even want a break when I offered it to them! The presentation was graphic, illustrative, entertaining, engrossing, and totally ineffective so far as anything changing for the better in the classroom. It was awareness orientation not training. It wasn't until I got into classrooms, one-on-one with teachers, that the desired changes began to occur. It was then that real training took place.

Let's look now at what conditions should exist which will heighten the probability that teachers will acquire the skills they need to improve the quality of the learning environment that is under their control.

I. The objects of the training (that is the teachers) have a key decision making role in selecting,planning and conducting the training:

   A. Select the topic
   B. Set the objective
   C. Set the date/time/place
   D. Handle logistics
   E. Select the presenter(s)
   F. Manage the budget
   G. Determine format

   The teachers must not simply be an audience, they must be the owners.

II. The building principals actively support the training, and advocate for its long term impact, by:

   A. Organizing the teachers to implement, maintain, monitor, and remediate the "program". This includes:
      1. The training of new teachers,
      2. Providing additional training and remediation to those teachers who need more help, or who are faced with particularly difficult problems.
   B. Providing teachers with the material support they need;
   C. Allowing teachers to observe others who exemplify the skills being taught.

The question often arises, "Does everyone have to participate in the training and give a commitment to long range involvement, including being accountable?" The answer to that question rests with the Board of Education. The Board is accountable to its constituents. It has both fiscal and programmatic accountability. As a board member, if I raised my hand in support of the expenditure of tax payers money for the inservice training of teachers, I would want to be certain that observable, measurable good accrued to the students because of the expenditure of those monies. My answer to the question is a resounding "yes." If the training is worth having at all, then every member of the target population should be trained and should be held accountable to perform to criteria.

III. The Board of Education and the superintendent should support the training, and in turn, should ask for a periodic accounting of the impact of the training. These accountability reports should contain hard data which document observable, measurable changes in the desired direction.

Long term benefits from inservice training are more likely to be realized when the relationship between the training and the schools is systemic; that is, the training is an integral part of how the system operates. It is provided to achieve predetermined ends that support the overall mission and goals of the system; meets specific, documented needs; and is subject to accountability. Just as a district has a bussing plan, athletic program plan, administrative plan, and so on, it should have an inservice education plan. Too often, if not typically, inservice training is a casual approach to the infusion of innovation into the system that is influenced more by intuition facilitated by a budget, than by documented need facilitated by a plan--which includes a budget!

Critical to effective inservice training is the quality of the inservice trainers.

Given this, the question arises, "What should one look for when selecting inservice trainers?" Typically consultants are selected on the basis of credentials, interpersonal skills, and personal characteristics. These might very well be inconsequential. Bloom has observed that the correlation between these and student achievement is only +.20: a statistically insignificant correlation. Rather, Bloom argues in behalf of the need for teachers to have a demonstrated ability to change the behavior of others. The University of Oregon's Center for Educational Policy and Management has identified 5 skills that an inservice trainer should have:

1. The ability to communicate to teachers the theoretical basis of what is being taught.

Without a solid understanding of the theory upon which a skill is based, the learner is but a technician--a laborer, not a professional who can generalize the skill from one setting, and individual, to another.

The teaching of behavior modification and behavior management skills is a perfect example of what I mean. I know of no topic of inservice training that has been more widely addressed for such a long period of time as has the topic behavior modification/behavior management. And yet, as I sit in classrooms across America and beyond, I observe an almost total lack of understanding on the part of practitioners about the underlying theory of human behavior. Consequently, classrooms are in disarray, teachers are screaming at their students, off-task behavior is at about the 50% level, and kids are driving the schools crazy.

Inservice training almost never addresses the theoretical underpinnings of what is being taught.

2. The ability to demonstrate the skill to be learned, either in an actual classroom, or in a reasonable simulation thereof.

Learners need to be shown how, whether it's learning to fly a plane, repair a damaged heart, build a house, or teach a child. Inservice training, as I mentioned at the outset, typically tells about something. It too seldom shows the learner how. I'm reminded of the experience a counterpart of mine had in India where he was inservicing rural Indian farmers in birth control methods involving the use of condoms. A year later, he returned to assess the impact of his training. He was mortified when one confused, distraught farmer said, "I rolled that thing over my thumb just the way you told me but my wife still got pregnant!"

3. The ability to provide the learner with an opportunity to appropriately practice the skill being taught.

Inservice training activities almost never provide the learner with an opportunity for appropriate practice. Consequently, the teachers go back to their classrooms and, as often as not, engage in poor practice. I see this everywhere I go relative to behavior management. Remember, practice does not make perfect, it makes permanent. Only perfect practice makes perfect.

4. The ability to coach the learner in the use of the skill being taught.

Inservice trainers seldom remain on site long enough to coach teachers as they practice the newly-taught skills in the classroom. Rather, as my late friend and director of Special Education for the Government of Guam observed, "They use the Seagull method of inservice training. They fly in, dump their loads and fly out."

5. The ability to provide teachers with prescriptive feedback in how well they are using the new skill.

Feedback, if given at all, is informal, non specific, and non prescriptive: "Well, Mr. Jones, I can see you are really giving this thing your best shot! That's great. If I can be of any help, let me know. I appreciate having had the opportunity to visit your class. You have great kids here."

Considering this, the question arises, "But how do you pay for all that?" The answer is straight forward and simple: "Spread the money only as far as it will go to accomplish the desired needs." If your entire inservice budget can only go far enough to adequately train 5 teachers a year, then it's 5 teachers who get trained. If they are properly trained and achieve criterion levels of performance, then you have 5 potential trainers on site. The ripple effect is simply astounding. Large numbers of trainees per inservice training activity is absolutely no measure of success. Phi Delta Kappa's Research newsletter of March 1983 said it all, "The revelance of an inservice project is inversely proportional to the number in attendance" (p. 4).

The success of inservice training is not measured—to generalize from the "Seagull" analogy—in terms of the number of people who get dumped on. It is measured in terms of increments of growth. One hundred attendees representing a total of 5 increments of growth is infinantly less successful than 5 attendees representing 100 increments of growth.

Edward Kelly and John Vanvactor of the University of Nevada in Las Vegas beautifully demonstrated the cost effectiveness of inservice training. In an article published in October, 1983 in Exceptional Children, titled "The Relative Cost Effectiveness of Inservice Approaches in Remote, Sparsely Populated Schools," they compared the cost effectiveness of four inservice approaches:

1. An instructional-packet approach
2. A master-teacher approach
3. A university-personnel approach, and
4. A university-campus approach

They concluded their study as follows:

> "Obviously, the most indicative cost-effectiveness determinations are those that reflect post-practice results.
>
> This study has found . . . that on-site instruction appears to be academically and fiscally more effective . . . ."

The study assessed cost effectiveness on the basis of the cost per unit of gain, as determined from pre and post-testing. The costs per unit of gain were as follows:

Instructional-Packet	$1,171.58
University Campus	998.79
On-site use of Master teachers	373.00
On-site use of University personnel	364.15

Numbers served, in and of itself, means nothing. Meaning and cost effectiveness are found only in the gains realized by those served.

If we are willing to orient our inservice training activities, and the budgets that support them, in the direction of achieving observable, measurable gains that are consistent with district policies—gains which are accounted for regularly and formally to the Board of Education, long term benefits of inservice training will almost surely be realized.

Glenn Latham
Professor
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October, 1987

PROGRAM OUTLINE: 1987 National Rural & Small Schools Consortium

October 13-17, 1987, Arlington, VA

TWO-WAY INTERACTIVE TELEVISION OVERVIEW: AN ALTERNATIVE FOR SMALL & RURAL SCHOOLS

Presenters: Will Kitchen, President
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America's rural elementary, secondary, and post-secondary schools in general encounter unique challenges in providing instruction, because of their smaller size, lower funding levels, state curriculum mandates, and geographic distances and isolation. These factors, in addition to a diverse student population and limited numbers of staff, pose challenges in designing and providing comprehensive programs. Analysts suggest that technology offers one potential solution. There is evidence of success in the use of technology systems as a means for sharing many educational resources and providing an effective means of delivering educational opportunities to students. Rural schools must become more creative and take more risks in order to deliver quality educational opportunities to their students and communities.

Two major non-metropolitan concerns: 1) lack of educational opportunities and resources, and, 2) an inadequate telecommunications infrastructure for economic development emphasize the need for education and business to join together to co-share a telecommunications network which provides education with a quality delivery system and rural businesses with the opportunity to upgrade their current systems and thus provide the area with a telcommunications infrastructure that may become an economic development tool for the region. Only by forming a unique, mutually advantageous "partnership" can many of the needs of education and local businesses be met in these communities.

Two-way interactive television offers one such avenue for meeting school and community needs. By sharing costs and creating mutually beneficial school/business partnerships, small and rural schools can not only "catch up" with larger, urban districts, but can actually offer more classes and expanded course offerings than some urban campuses. This session will explain the process of planning (feasibility), designing (system construction) and implementing two-way interactive television systems in small and rural school districts. The consultants will describe and demonstrate operational projects in several states. Video tapes of ITV classes will be shown to illustate the system and document student and teacher reactions to learning on the two-way interactive television system.

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" CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS " TELEVISION FOR PARENT AND STAFF TRAINING IN RURAL AREAS

ABSTRACT

The Young Adult Institutes's (YAI) " Children With Special Needs " is a series of thirty-six half hour television shows produced under a model demonstration grant from the Handicapped Children's Early Education Program, U.S. Department of Education. The Young Adult Institute produced shows covering issues of concern to parents and professionals involved with developmentally disabled infants, toddlers and pre-schoolers and the transition issues they face. Show topics range from those on emotional issues such as the impact on the family and dealing with stress to the more fact-based shows on developmental milestones and Public Law 94 - 142. Each show focuses on real life issues and concerns which affect families on a daily basis. There are accompanying training guides which provides additional information on the show topic and discussion questions. Dissemination plans include the use of local cable and public television stations, as well as distribution of the shows in videotape format to community agencies.

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

The Young Adult Institute was developed in 1957 by a group of parents and professionals concerned about the future of their developmentally disabled adolescents. It has grown to become one of New York State's largest providers of community-based residential, clinical, and support services. Responding to the well-documented need for early and accurate detection of developmentally disabled infants and the transition issues their families face, YAI created a model that would use video to provide information and support. This was based on the following needs :

1. Lack of early detection of infants with developmental disabilities (age 0 - 3) by families and medical personnel. If a disabling condition is suspected by family members at birth or during early childhood, the first professional consulted is usually a physician. Many physicians, however, lack adequate information about developmental disabilities, preventing them from recommending appropriate providers of early intervention services, thus delaying a coordinated and effective treatment plan.

2. Lack of systematic and consistent early intervention to ensure maximum development of developmentally disabled infants and young children in the areas of intellectual, emotional, physical, mental, social and language development.

3. Lack of parent training and support programs to provide parents with the resources to ensure the maximum growth and development of their disabled child in the home. Obviously, the relationship between parents and their disabled child is a critical factor in the ability of the child to be accepted and viewed as an integral part of the nuclear family unit. The more support a family receives from the community social service agencies, the more likely it is that the handicapped child can live at home.

4. Lack of dissemination of proven early intervention techniques among parents and families of developmentally disabled children, especially among economically disadvantaged and minority populations.

5. Lack of parental knowledge regarding diagnostic and evaluation, educational, medical social and counseling services available for the treatment of developmentally disabled infants and children. State and Federal education laws, (P.L. 94 - 142; NYS Education Department Regulations of the Commissioner of Education, subchapter P, Part 200), mandate that a written summary of available services be made available to parents, but little is done to ensure that this information is given and explained to parents unless they actively request it.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE VIDEOTAPES

The thirty-six topics of the videotapes were chosen after surveying parents of developmentally disabled youngsters. They were asked what information they would like to have had at the time of their child's birth and / or diagnosis, information they did have at that time that was helpful, and what information they would recommend for new parents. The Project Director, Jordana Zeger, who has fifteen years of experience in early childhood and parent training, contacted parents and professionals and discussed proposed topics with them. In addition, an on-going Advisory Board of parents and professionals reacted to the projected topics. And finally, the Project Specialist, Maureen Lynch, who is a sibling with twelve years of experience in the special education field, brought her experiences as a family member to the proces of selecting topics.

Script writing, as well as guest and site selection, was done with the aim of providing the maximum amount of information in the most appealing way possible. Each script was based on two to three instructional objectives to guarantee that essential training material was covered. Guests were chosen whose experiences matched the specific concerns and issues of each show. It was felt to be extremely important to have guests who represented a diverse range of social, economic and family situations. Though the majority of the taping took place in New York City, shows discussed how to get recommended services such as genetic counseling, diagnostic services, or early intervention for those living in rural areas. There is also regular mention of which services are covered by state education departments or health insurance plans. Through the studio segments, hosted by Dr. Philip Levy, Associate Executive Director of the agency, Jordana Zeger, Project Director, and Jim and Candice Gillis, parents of a developmentally disabled child, there is frank discussion of the need for parent professional cooperation, as well as regular representation of effective cooperation and mutal respect. Professionals who were guests on the shows were chosen for their exemplary work as leaders in such fields as pediatrics, special education, and law. They include Dr. T. Berry Brazelton of Harvard University, Dr. Francis Connor of Columbia University, and Dr. Stanley Greenspan of the Division of Maternal and Child Health. To accomodate their schedules, these and other professionals were interviewed at national conferences such as the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), The Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps (TASH), The American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD), and the National Center for Clinical Infant Programs (NCCIP). Over 150 parents and professionals were interviewed by Joel M. Levy, the Agency Executive Director.

One of the strengths of these videotapes is that they take the viewers - new parents - into worlds where they will have to go and are a bit apprehensive about entering. For instance, in various shows, visits are made to a diagnostic clinic, a genetic counseling session in progress, and a program that teaches techniques for preventing sexual abuse. These can all be very difficult situations. But by having a couple who are parents themselves, act as on-location hosts, the viewer is able to follow them into situations and learn coping techniques and strategies that will allow them to be more involved, effective parents.

It's been interesting that in the taping of the shows, many parents who are guests will comment afterward about their increased feeling of self-worth. As one mother of a six year old severely disabled daughter said, " It was such a good feeling to be able to help new parents. I feel like I'm always making demands, always trying to get services. For the first time I felt like I was giving something back. "

DEVELOPMENT OF THE GUIDE

A training guide accompanies each of the videotapes. It includes overview of the show topic, most frequently asked questions and their answers and discussion questions, written in a simple and direct style to make it accessible to the widest audience. Though it assumed that it will be used primarily in parent groups, it is also to be used by individuals, parents and staff trainers and professionals.

The purpose of the training guide is to provide the user with additional information not covered on the 1/2 hour videotapes and provides for open ended discussion questions. This allows parents and professionals the opportunity to explore both the emotional and pragmatic approach that would best serve each individual. These questions allow parents to engage in meaningful problem-solving techniques by tapping in to the experiences and knowledge of each parent. These questions evoke the ability of parents in empowering themselves and others and thus allow the group leader to become a true facilitator rather than the " trainer ".

PURPOSE OF THE PROJECT

1. Transmitting a comprehensive system of parent training and support programs to provide parents with the resources to ensure the maximum growth and development of their developmentally disabled child in the least restrictive enviroment (i.e., the home). The more support a family recieves from community social agencies the more likely that the disabled child can be maintained at home.

2. Providing for the effective dissemination of proven, life-enhancing intervention techniques to parents and families of developmentally disabled individuals, especially among economically disadvantaged and minority populations.

3. Enchancing parental knowledge regarding diagnostic and evaluation, educational, medical, social, advocacy and finacial services available for their developmentally disabled family member. YAI's " Children With Special Needs " will make it

possible for parents to recieve the best available information and advice from some of this nation's foremost experts in the field.

4. Alleviating the stress on parents, siblings, and other family members of disabled individuals by the provision of information, referral, and direct services.

5. Offering a reliable, coordinated source of support, treatment, and referral services to families of developmentally disabled individuals. YAI's " Children with Special Needs " has the capacity to provide a single point of entry into the service system for the families of people with developmental disabilities.

6. Provide parents with accurate information about normal growth and development in infants and young children, thus enabling them to detect suspected deviations from normal growth patterns of development in their young children.

DISSEMINATION

Dissemination of " Children With Special Needs " is two-fold. The first is to continue and expand TV airing on local station across the U.S. and secondly, is to make the shows assessible in videotape for parent and professionals.

YAI's " Children with Special Needs " is being broadcast on WNYE, New York City's Board of Education operated public television station and 40 local cable stations. A one-year commitment of three weekly airings was given - Sunday morning, Monday during the day at a designated teacher-in-service time slot, and Tuesday evening.

Two major efforts are being made to secure the continuation of airing the series on television. The first is to obtain a continued committment from WNYE and cable stations to re-air the series (reairing the series has been rescheduled for the upcoming year) and to expand it's viewing audience within the tri-state area of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut. Secondly, we are in the process of obtaining local agencies, University Affiliated Counsels, local ARC's or UCP's to sponsor the shows in their local areas. Sponsor groups will be responsible for : 1. securing an airing commitment from a local PBS, cable or city T.V. stations 2. provide a phone number that will be shown during each show so that parents can call in for further support, information and referral (This phone number does not need to be the phone number of the sponsoring agency) and 3. notify potential viewers of airing times and dates of the shows. Due to the intrinsic value of each show, we have made the series available to agencies, parents and professionals for loan or purchase. These tapes are currently being used in parent groups, individual counseling sessions, college and university courses, public relations, staff pre-service and inservice training and workshops. The series, in whole, parts or as individual tapes, provide parents, staff and professionals with a wide variety of use.

We think that it is important that through our dissemination effort, we stress the flexibility of how many uses the tapes have. See page 7 for list of show titles and descriptions which have been divided into six categories. We encourage uses not to feel locked in to the six categories as seperate components. but rather use the tapes from all categories depending on the needs of the viewer.

EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

An initial evaluation was conducted by designing a form to determine if parents felt " Children With Special Needs " was informative, and would help them be more involved parents. It is interesting to note that a full 100% (of over 70 parents) said they would recommend the show to others. In addition, evaluations were completed by professionals and Advisory Board members. In conclusion, it is encouraging to see the tremendous response from families who feel that for the first time their concerns are being acknowledged.

In addition, research is being conducted on the impact of the tapes on parents caring for their young child with developmental disabilities at home. Measurements of stress, resources, advocacy and attitudes will be looked at.

SUMMARY

The Yound Adult Institute's " Children With Special Needs " has had a land-mark impact in the field of developmental disabilities. It is the first T.V. series that explores the concerns, hopes and dreams of parents with developmental disabled infants and pre-school children. The response we have recieved from both parents and professionals has been enormous and positive. It supports our notion that providing support and information to these families will have a positive impact on their child's growth and development, but even more importantly, it positively effects the whole family.

YAI'S " CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS "
SHOW TITLES AND DESCRIPTIONS

PARENT ISSUES

1. *Parent Support Groups*—Patricia Smith, NICHCY, joins discussion of importance of groups, how to start and maintain them, as we visit groups and watch them in action.

2.&3. *Managing Your Child's Behavior, Pt. I & II*—Behavior analyst Dr. Dena Saxe and psychologist Dr. Merny Schwartz discuss common problem behaviors and techniques that actually work. Two families use behavior techniques in their homes.

4. *Stress and Coping*—Parent Advocates Cory Moore and Carol & Stuart Kellerman discuss signs of stress and coping strategies they use. Psychologist Dr. Suzanne Ouellette covers misconceptions about stress and her recommendations.

5. *Preventing Sexual Abuse*—Child Safety specialists Dr. Elizabeth Krent and Pamela Sackett join parents to discuss safety rules for parents and children. Existing programs are visited, and additional resources are given.

6. *Working with Your Child at Home*—Dr. Diane Bricker discusses the important role of the parent: Eunice Kennedy Shriver discusses "Let's Play To Grow"; and we watch early childhood specialist Jordana Zeger work as a ne-based teacher.

DEVELOPMENTAL SHOWS

19. *Diagnosis*—An assessment in progress is visited as Dr. T. Berry Brazelton, Dr. Yeou-Cheng Ma and Anne Preston join parents in discussion of selecting, participating in, and monitoring a child's assessment.

20.-23. The following four shows feature leaders in the field discussing milestones, activities parents can do to foster their child's development, and sources of additional resources.

20. *Motor Development*—Dr. T. Berry Brazelton, physical therapist Francine Stern, and Eunice Kennedy Shiver.

21. *Language Development*—Speech Pathologist Dr. Priscilla Bollard.

22. *Emotional Development*—Dr. Stanley Greenspan, Eunice Kennedy Shiver, and Toy Lending Library.

23. *Cognitive Development*—Dr. T. Berry Brazelton, Dr. Mary Jo Ward, Eunice Kennedy Shiver, and Toy Lending Library.

24. *Early Intervention*—Dr. T. Berry Brazelton, Dr. Diane Bricker, and Dr. Frances Connor join parents to discuss selecting and monitoring programs as examples of home-based and school-based programs are shown.

PROFESSIONAL ISSUES

7. *Parent Professional Cooperation*—Parent advocate Rosemary Gonzalez and art therapist Jayminn Sanford discuss how to work with social and health service professionals and role play typical problems that arise.

8. *The Team Approach*—Working with families of disabled children is not an isolated profession. An administrator, a parent, and a teacher discuss the ins and outs of working as a team.

9. *The Role of the Clergy*—A Pastor, Rabbi, and Salvation Army worker give their reactions to a series of honest responses from parents about the role religion has had in dealing with disabled children.

10. *The Role of the Doctor*—Doctors have a significant impact on parents of handicapped children. Dr. Ralph Perkel and Dr. Yogman from Harvard Medical School, along with parents, talk about the doctor's role and how it impacts on the family.

11. *Culturally Diverse Families*—Culture, language, religion, ethnic background, all play a part in working with families. Three professionals talk about approaches that help sensitize professionals working with culturally diverse families.

12. Families with Multi-problems—This show addresses the issues faced by professionals working with families dealing with problems beyond their child's disability and features WIN, an innovative program successfully dealing with these families.

TRANSITIONAL ISSUES

25. *Transition from Home to School*—Transitions can be traumatic experiences for a child. This show looks at the techniques to successfully take a child from the home environment into a school.

26. *Parents and Teachers in Partnership*—Parents and professionals talk about the benefits and techniques of developing a good working relationship.

27.&28. *Public Law 94-142, Pt. I&II*—Two half hour tapes on the law feature Dr. Ann Turnbull, parent advocate Rosemary Gonzalez, NYC public school administrator Teri Chase, and attorney Jane Stern discussing parents' and professionals rights and responsibilities, and the most frequently asked questions.

29. *Your Public Schools*—A comprehensive show overviewing the services and personnel who will be available to you and your child.

30. *Planning Your Child's Future*—Parents' concerns about the future, ways of providing opportunities for children as they grow, and residential and financial planning are discussed by a panel including YAI Executive Director Joel M. Levy, Dr. Ann Turnbull, and attorney Herbert Semmel.

FAMILY ISSUES

13.&14. *Issues of Family Life Pt. I&II*—A variety of issues are discussed by a panel c parents and professionals as they react t taped segments of parents talking about the day-to-day experience of having disable children. Dr. Lou Brown and Dr. Lisbeth Vincent talk about integration.

15. *Fathers*—Two fathers and psychiatrist D Hector Goa discuss the unique issues face by fathers of disabled children.

16. *Siblings*—Dr. Thomas Powell of Sibling Information Network and Maureen Lynch, sibling and special educator, discuss wit families the concerns that siblings have, support programs that exist, and suggestions fo parents.

17. *Having a Disabled Brother or Sister*— tape designed specially for siblings themselves features Dr. Thomas Powell of Siblin Information Network and Maureen Lync sibling and special educator, discussing wi youngsters their concerns, feelings, and suggestions for other siblings.

18. *Extended Family Members*—Grandparent discuss their love for their disabled grandchildren and their concerns for the future. Othe relatives and friends talk about getting th information they need to provide support fo the family.

THERAPEUTIC ISSUES

31. *Having a Baby in the NICU*—Neonatologist join parents and professionals to discuss technical terms and procedures, working cooperatively with hospital staff, and parenting hospitalized child.

32. *Infant Temperament*—Child psychiatrist D Stella Chess visits with babies and their parents to discuss how knowing your child temperament and style will help you be better parent and teacher.

33. *Having a Developmentally Disabled Child*—Parents candidly discuss their feelings the first year, their plans for the future, and how they cope.

34. *Causes and Prevention*—A genetic counseling program is visited with guests Dr. Arthur Salisbury, Dr. Cassandra Henderson, Dr. Harold Nitowsky, and Myrna-Ben-Yishay.

35. *Community Integration*—Patricia Smith, NICHCY, joins parents for a discussion of attitudes towards disabilities and techniques for educating the public. We watch parents take their daughter to a park, then see Kirsten Hansen use specially designed dolls, "New Friends," with a group of pre-schoolers.

36. *School Integration*—Dr. Frances Connor joins a group of parents and professionals as they discuss selecting and supporting children in the least restrictive environment.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 14, 1987

3:05 - 4:05 PM

Dennis Wydra
Associate Professor
Mansfield University
50 Wakefield Terrace
Mansfield, PA 16933

Cynthia Wydra
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The Pennsylvania Teleteaching Project - A Field Tested Statewide Model for A Comprehensive Exemplary Cost-Effective Instructional Delivery System

PENNSYLVANIA TELETEACHING NETWORK

PROJECT ABSTRACT

I. PROFILE OF COMMUNITY

Project participants include public and private high school students in pre-college, industrial arts, regular, and EMR classes. One high school is on-line with a prison for teenagers and another with a juvenile detention center for emotionally disturbed children. One junior high school is connected to a private school for remedial reading. And, one elementary school is linked to another for elementary students in an enrichment program. Two junior high schools and two middle schools are offering courses for gifted students.

II. HOW DID THE PROJECT BEGIN?

The 1985-86 Mansfield-Utah Teleteaching Project, funded by the Pennsylvania Department of Education for $47,000, was the pilot teleteaching project for the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The success of this project with pre-college, EMR, and elementary students convinced the Pennsylvania Department of Education to fund the current project for a total of $526,000. A professional partnership between a Utah Superintendent and a Pennsylvania Professor has spawned 18 intrastate courses and one interstate course.

III. THEORETICAL/RESEARCH BASE

Educators believe few cost-effective alternatives exist for rural schools who lack sufficient staff and funding to offer all the courses needed by high school graduates for post-secondary education. Students in Utah, Alaska, New York, and Pennsylvania are demonstrating they can learn as much from an on-line teleteacher as they can in a face-to-face teaching situation. These projects utilizing the interactive electronic chalkboard with two-way audio on rural telephone lines have demonstrated their effectiveness in "redistributing staff without relocation." The critical areas for research should now focus on pedagogical style, professional standards and practices, and reducing system and operational costs. At lease one live Calculus teleclass is demonstrating academic achievement and motivation inconsistent with their performance in two other math classes all taught by the same teacher. This Master Teacher cannot explain a dual phenomenon. The second year teleteacher is two weeks ahead of schedule for the first time in 33 years and finds his live class performing as well as his remote class located 20 miles away. Last year his remote teleclass averaged 94.6 in Calculus while his traditional control class scored 90.7. Instead of teaching two separate classes (as last year) he is currently teaching one on-line class with a total of 22 students and his "live students" are scoring as well as his remote telestudents after eleven exams. He quips, "teaching has never been so easy."

IV. DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT

Master teachers were trained to use an electronic chalkboard using normal telephone lines. The delivery system uses Apple IIE or PC Computers, light pens, modems and speaker telephones. Telelessons are prepared on floppy disks and teachers and students can instantly interact on the speakerphone and/or electronic chalkboard. Nineteen courses currently on line from 2 to 2,000 miles away show no difference in academic achievement between remote telestudents and in-class students. Twenty-seven (27) school districts and intermediate units and 2 juvenile detention centers are currently teleteaching and more than 50 other districts are considering adopting this low-cost distance education alternative next year.

V. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED

The biggest problem encountered was the lack of cooperation from the telephone companies. Improper installation of new lines, uncooperative installation personnel, office delays and sub-standard telephone service were frequently encountered. One school near the West Virginia-Penna. border had to hire an electrical sub-contractor because the county field supervisor did not install telephones in classrooms for any price. Unusual weather did affect line transmission.

Finding a good home for the teleclassroom was another major problem. In some instances school staff employed guerilla tactics to drive the teleteacher out of the teleclassroom. Site selection criteria has been developed for next year and clearly identifies the need to educate the school administration on the importance of their decisions regarding the site selected for teleteaching.

Total administration support is vital to the success or failure of a telecourse. One course was cancelled when the teacher refused to teach without appropriate support. Another was almost cancelled because the teacher was expected to teleteach during homeroom period with pirated materials. Professional guidelines will be adopted for the 87-88 year and focus on program rationale, personnel selection, personnel compensation, other factors, and long range consideration and needs.

The implementation time line was only a few weeks long and imposed on the teleteachers the following responsibility. They had to be retrained in their classroom while performing their normal classroom duties, learning to use a computer and a light pen, adapting to teaching students they could not see, finding time to prepare all of their electronic lessons, and learning to team teach with their associate teleteacher.

Equipment did break and was replaced or repaired in the field or by the equipment maintenance contractor using overnight UPS service. Teachers however, have adapted to teaching with only the speakerphone if the computer chalkboard crashes.

VI. MEASURABLE SUCCESS

STUDENTS AND TEACHERS ARE REPORTING NO DIFFERENCE IN TELECLASS PERFORMANCE AND TRADITIONAL CLASS PERFORMANCE. STUDENTS ARE REPORTING THEY ARE "LEARNING MORE IN A SHORTER TIME" FROM THEIR TELECLASSES THAN THEIR TRADITIONAL CLASSES. TEACHERS REPORT THE TELESTUDENTS AT EACH SITE DEMONSTRATED SIGNIFICANT PEER INTERACTION FROM AN APPARENT FEAR OF BEING EMBARASSED IF THEY CANNOT ANSWER A QUESTION OR DO NOT HAVE HOMEWORK PREPARED. COMPETITION AND SCHOOL PRIDE ARE VERY APPARENT WHEN THE STUDENTS FUNCTION AS A TEAM AND SUPPORT EACH OTHER. THE DIRECTOR OF OUR TEENAGE PRISON HAS NEVER OBSERVED AS HIGH A LEVEL OF PEER INTERACTION AND MOTIVATION FROM HIS SIX STUDENTS WHICH HAS BECOME A TOOL FOR BUILDING THEIR SELF-ESTEEM.

ADMINISTRATORS ARE REPORTING NOTICEABLE CHANGES IN TEACHING STYLE, ENTHUSIASM, AND EXCEPTIONAL CLASS PERFORMANCE OF THEIR TELETEACHERS. THE DELIVERY SYSTEM APPEARS TO BREED BOTH STUDENT AND TEACHER SELF-ESTEEM.

SCHOOL BASED STAFF DEVELOPMENT HAS BEEN AN UNEXPECTED BENEFIT. THE VERSACAD INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHER IS TEACHING THREE CLASSES AT THE SAME TIME. ONE OF THE TWO REMOTE CLASSES HAS TWO TEACHERS SERVING AS ASSOCIATE TELETEACHERS. ONE OF THESE TEACHERS IS LEARNING CAD DURING THE NORMAL TELECLASS AND IS THEN TEACHING THE SAME LESSON IN THE AFTERNOON. THERE IS NO REPORTED DIFFERENCE BETWEEN STUDENT CAD PROJECTS IN THE OFF-LINE AFTERNOON CLASS FROM THE REMOTE MORNING ON-LINE CLASS. THE MASTER TEACHER IS REALLY TEACHING FOUR SECTIONS OF STUDENTS AND TRAINING THREE TEACHERS SIMULTANEOUSLY ALTHOUGH THEY ARE 50 AND 60 MILES AWAY.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATORS' FUTURE WORK

THE PENNSYLVANIA TELETEACHING NETWORK IS A FIELD TESTED STATEWIDE MODEL FOR A COMPREHENSIVE EXEMPLARY COST EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEM. THE SYSTEM CAN FUNCTION FROM A TWO SCHOOL INTRASTATE COOPERATIVE TO A MULTISCHOOL INTERSTATE CONGLAMORATE. PRIVATE SCHOOLS, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, SPECIAL SCHOOLS, COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, AND PRISONS ARE ONLY A PHONE CALL AWAY. COURSES FROM REMEDIAL READING TO PHYSICS TO SCHOOL LAW CAN BE DELIVERED BY SIMPLY DIALING LONG DISTANCE. EVERY SITE CAN BE A TEACHING SITE AND EASILY PERMITS MASTER TEACHERS AT ANY SCHOOL TO BE SHARED WITH STUDENTS AT ANOTHER SCHOOL.

FIELD TRIPS TO PENNSYLVANIA'S TELECLASSES CAN BE ARRANGED BY CONTACTING THE PROJECT DIRECTOR. THE SYSTEM FUNCTIONS ON EXISTING APPLE IIE AND PC COMPUTERS WITH MINOR EQUIPMENT MODIFICATIONS AND CAN BE SET UP FROM $3,000-$7,000 PER TELESITE.

ABSTRACT NOTE: SUBMITTED TO THE U. S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, OFFICE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND IMPROVEMENT FOR PUBLICATION IN A REPORT A RURAL EDUCATION SYMPOSIUM, WASHINGTON, D. C., MARCH 29, 1987.

A Study of Instructional Environments
Provided for Learning Disabled and
Behaviorally Impaired Children

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Running Head: ENVIRONMENTS

Abstract

Children being served by special education in rural and urban classrooms were observed as part of a three year federally-funded study. Of interest were differences in children's behaviors and instructional environments across special and regular classrooms in rural and urban areas. Data were analyzed from the direct observation form of the Children's Behavior Checklist (CBC, Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1982), and from an observation sheet concerned with classroom variables such as size, climate, student/teacher ratio, classroom organization, and amount of visible student work. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses are reported. Urban and rural settings differed across most variables as did special and regular education classrooms.

A Study of Instructional Environments Provided for Learning Disabled and Behaviorally Impaired Children

There is a paucity of research concerning the actual environments provided for children with different instructional needs. Most of what is available merely lists alternative placements offered to children who are characterized as displaying behaviors or learning problems associated with learning disabilities (LD) or with behavioral impairment (BI).

This paper reports results of preliminary data analysis of the first year of a three-year federally funded project investigating the classroom situations of 484 midwestern children. The objectives of this particular report are as follows:

1. Describe the behaviors of the target children in regular and special education classes.

2. Describe teacher behaviors, task characteristics, physical dimensions of the room, student/teacher ratios, student groupings, and academic engaged time in special and regular rooms in rural and urban areas.

Method

Subjects

Subjects in this report (N = 278) were drawn from a sample of almost 484 midwestern children, aged 11 - 15. Seventy percent of the sample is male. The ethnicity of the sample mirrors that of the region. Fifty five percent of the sample was in the BI category, with 45% in the LD category. The groups were matched on

SES, gender, age, family constellation, and ethnicity. Thirty nine cases were from rural areas with the remaining cases from a middle sized city (about 171,000 people).

Instrumentation

The Achenbach and Edelbrock (1983) Child Behavior Checklist (CBC) direct observation form was the primary instrumentation. Use of the direct observation form results in one hour of narrative description concerning the behaviors of the target child and six observer ratings of child behavior on 113 behaviors.

A supplemental experimenter-made form was used to record the size of the room, whether or not classroom rules were posted, whether or not a classroom behavioral program was evident, and so on.

Procedure

Trained observers accomplished about 1 1/2 hours of observation for each child. These observations were divided between special and regular classrooms. Whenever possible, the observations were done in academic subjects. The students and teachers were aware they were being observed.

Results

The CBC was analyzed from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Scores representing time on task, numbers of internalizing and externalizing behaviors, and total problem behaviors were investigated using analysis of variance. Significant setting (special vs. regular classroom) and community size (urban vs. rural) effects were found on numbers of internalizing and externalizing behaviors and total number of problem behaviors. A significant effect of community size was found on the time-on-task variable. See Tables 1 - 4.

Urban and rural settings also differed dramatically on many of the variables from the supplemental observation form. For example, although the student/teacher ratios were comparable in rural and urban areas in general, the ratios varied from 22:1 in regular urban classrooms to 4:1 in special rural classrooms. Interest or work stations were apparent in only 4% of the rural classrooms, but in 27% of urban special classrooms. The sizes of classrooms differed with rural special rooms ranging from 225 - 900 square feet and urban special rooms ranging from 300 - 3025 square feet. (See attached analysis by Etchison for the complete report).

The qualitative analysis of the narratives from the CBC illustrated interesting and somewhat puzzling themes. These are detailed in the discussion.

Discussion

Both the methodology and the findings of this study may be of interest to school personnel. Collecting data relevant to instructional environments for target children is a fairly recent development. The combination of these observations with the highly reliable behavior ratings from the Achenbach and Edelbrock instrument provides an indepth view of both the child and the enviroment being structured for the child. Little is currently known about how instructional environments differ, even between regular and special programming.

The quantitative analysis of the CBC indicated that urban special education rooms, despite the rather low student/teacher ratios are most commonly disrupted by children's behaviors. Rural regular education rooms seem most free from disruptive behaviors and rural rooms in general show the most time on task among students. It is surprising that special and regular rooms did not differ on the time-on-task variable. One might have speculated that the smaller and more heavily staffed special rooms would be more successful in keeping students engaged.

The qualitative analyses of the CBC indicated that variables such as children's noises, facial expression, task orientation, peer interactions, movement, alertness, interaction with teacher, and interaction with learning materials could be isolated as themes in the narratives written by the classroom observers. A preliminary analysis of these variables suggested the following.

1. Special education students engage in a large number of irrelevant physical movements and habits (leg tapping, pencil chewing, hair twirling, etc.). Many of these behaviors occur even when the child is on task. Teachers tend to ignore these behaviors and focus attention on only more important disruptions.

2. Students seem to engage in academic work more reliably when directly instructed by the teacher or another adult. They respond to direct requests by teachers, but tend to become quite peripheral to classroom activities if not regularly pulled into the classroom activities by the teachers (through use of questions, physical proximity, group activity, etc.).

3. Special education students behaved in approximately the same ways in regular and special rooms. In fact, when differences seemed to exist, worse behavior was evident in the

special rooms. This persisted, especially in urban classrooms, even when the student teacher ratios were very small.

4. Rural children were better behaved and teachers more active than were urban children and teachers. Even with other adults in a classroom, urban teachers were less likely to directly engage with a student than were rural teachers.

5. Special education students were rarely disruptive when lessons included some visual displays, overheads, slide shows, or videos. They tended to become disruptive during transitions and when challenges (sarcastic remarks, refusals to comply) to teachers were not dealt with immediately. In several instances, special education students were completely on task when the teacher was reading aloud from a novel.

In summary, although our data are only preliminary, and many more analyses are necessary to discover causal links between environments and behaviors, the current findings suggest we are on a fruitful path. Warm, actively engaged teachers appear to create climates conducive to academic engagement among special education students. The presence of aides or other adults who circulate among children quickly responding to children's hand raising and questions reduces the behavioral deviancy of behaviorally impaired children. The use of visuals, such as overheads, slides, or videos is associated with more on-task behavior. In general, rural rooms are smaller and contain children who are on-task and who present with fewer behavioral problems than are apparent in urban situations.

Table 1

Source Table for Analysis of Variance for On-Task Variable

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.F
Main Effects	54.929	2	27.464	7.688	.001
Setting	.298	1	.298	.083	.773
Rural/Urban	53.977	1	53.977	15.109	.000
2-Way Interaction	.654	1	.654	.183	.669
Setting x R/U	.654	1	.654	.183	.669
Explained	55.583	3	18.528	5.186	.002
Residual	978.827	274	3.572		
Total	1034.410	277	3.734		

Table 2

Source Table for Analysis of Variance for Internalizing Behaviors

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.F
Main Effects	255.811	2	127.906	5.494	.005
Setting	147.770	1	147.770	6.348	.012
Rural/Urban	93.461	1	93.461	4.015	.046
2-Way Interaction	4.879	1	4.879	.210	.647
Setting x R/U	4.879	1	4.879	.210	.647
Explained	260.691	3	86.897	3.733	.012
Residual	6378.525	274	23.279		
Total	6639.216	277	23.968		

Table 3

Source Table for Analysis of Variance for Externalizing Behaviors

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.F
Main Effects	580.089	2	290.004	11.005	.000
Setting	439.965	1	439.965	16.693	.000
Rural/Urban	112.227	1	112.227	4.258	.040
2-Way Interaction	.032	1	.032	.001	.972
Setting x R/U	.032	1	.032	.001	.972
Explained	580.120	3	193.373	7.337	.000
Residual	7221.445	274	26.356		
Total	7801.565	277	28.164		

Table 4

Source Table for Analysis of Variance for Total Number of Problem Behaviors

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.F
Main Effects	2433.812	2	1216.906	8.651	.000
Setting	1451.363	1	1451.363	10.318	.001
Rural/Urban	844.976	1	844.976	6.007	.015
2-Way Interaction	21.329	1	21.329	.152	.697
Setting x R/U	21.329	1	21.329	.152	.697
Explained	2455.140	3	818.380	5.818	.001
Residual	38541.814	274	140.664		
Total	40996.954	277	148.003		

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The Student Peer Group in the Small Rural School: Asset or Liability?

(Paper presented to Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference, Virginia, USA, October 1987)

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THE STUDENT PEER GROUP IN THE SMALL RURAL SCHOOL: ASSET OR LIABILITY?

Alan Sigsworth, University of East Anglia

Introduction

Goffman (1971) it was who asserted that the physical setting of social interaction constituted a neglected area of study. A similar assertion, so far as the United Kingdom is concerned, can be made with regard to student relationships in small rural primary schools. It is the nature of those relationships which is the concern of this paper and, in attending to it, I plan to consider three things. First, I wish to take a very brief look at how three major reports, now part of educational, history perceived the small rural primary school and its students and indeed, fostered what might be called an urban perspective of rural schooling. Next, I wish to present an account of a small scale study of student relationships in small rural schools in order to indicate their distinctive difference from those in larger institutions. Finally, I intend to argue that small schools possess, in the student relationships which they contain, a valuable educational resource.

Before proceeding further, I must make clear the kind of small schools that I have in mind. My focus is upon the small rural primary schools which have teaching staffs of two to four teachers and enrolments of around 30 to 100 students in the 5 to 11 years age range. Schools of this kind, mainly located in rural areas, make up around 25% of the total number of primary schools in England. (1) Now to a brief glimpse of history.

A Brief Historical Account

In 1926, a government committee chaired by Sir Henry Hadow (Hadow 1926) recommended that the elementary school system which had come into being in 1870 should be reorganised on the basis of separate and distinctive primary and secondary schools. In 1931, a committee under the same chairman (Hadow 1931) considered the nature and purposes of the new primary school. That committee is chiefly remembered for its advanced view of what the curriculum should be like, for it asserted that 'the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored.' It urged teachers to generate active learning which involved both individual and cooperative group-based work. The Committee's search for existing practice by which it could exemplify its ideas led it to small rural schools. There, it drew upon examples such as this:

> *The teacher makes full use of individual effort on the part of the children... The scholars are allowed, irrespective of age to proceed to other and more advanced work as soon as they show their competency... and the older children help the younger children with their work.* (p21-2)

So impressed was the Hadow Committee with what it had found in small rural schools that it recommended the provision of a system whereby young teachers should serve an apprenticeship in them because 'in rural schools and small school generally there are opportunities for gaining valuable knowledge of individual and group [instructional] methods'.

Impressed as the Hadow Committee might have been with the best of rural practice in which teachers fostered cooperation between old and young and ignored age-grade barriers in the pursuit of student progress, there was something else upon the education scene to command their attention. They took notice of the prevailing psychological view of intelligence and its development and of the psychologist's capacity to determine ability by group tests. The Hadow Committee, on the basis of that evidence, and forgetful of the fluid continuity which they had found in small schools, recommended that the primary school phase should consist of two distinct stages; an infants' stage from 5-7 and a junior stage from 7-11. They further recommended that each age grade in the junior stage should ideally consist of three classes, classified on the basis of above average, average, and below average ability. The model size of primary school for the junior stage they saw as between 350 and 400 students. Turning back to the small rural school, the Committee regretted that its small size prevented the adoption of an age- graded, ability-streamed organisation and observed somewhat resignedly 'the adoption of a rougher classification is inevitable'.

There are two observations which one can make upon the Hadow Committee's deliberations. The first is that, implicit in what the Hadow Committee prized about small rural schools was their teachers' capacity to intermix children of different capacities and ages and to utilise cooperative approaches. The second observation is that the more the Hadow Committee developed its thinking, the more it became fixated upon the larger, ability-streamed, age-graded urban-sized school as the ideal solution. As a consequence, the small rural school came to be seen as deficient because its age groups were too small to be organised in line with the preferred model.

In 1967, the Plowden Committee and the Gittins Committee produced reports on primary education in England and Wales respectively (Plowden 1967, Gittins 1967). Both reports thoroughly endorsed the progressive approach to primary schooling. They urged the universal adoption of active approaches to curriculum, the integration of subjects, the employment of individual and group methods and the use of discovery approaches. The student peer group was identified as a valuable and powerful education resource. The Plowden Committee especially encouraged teachers to work through peer group relationships in pursuit of the advocated active curriculum. Like the Hadow Committee before them, both Plowden and Gittins sought examples of what they regarded as the best of primary practice. Like their predecssors, they came upon what they were looking for in good rural primary schools and they commented warmly upon the active nature of learning, the family atmosphere and the way in which children of different ages worked together. But there was a worm in the bud. Both committees, and Plowden particularly, worried about the inability of small rural schools to provide adequately sized peer groups '... for the older children and particularly the abler ones may may lack the stimulus of their peers'. By expressing their anxiety over the nature of the peer group, both Committees offered the small rural school as hostages to fortune for, over the succeeding two decades, politicians and adminstrators bent upon pursuing consolidation policies have used the inadequate peer group assertion as one of the main arguments for closing small schools in rural areas. That assertion is of course angrily dismissed by opponents of closure, yet in all of the closure cases which we have studied, neither proponents nor opponents of small school closure have produced any systematic evidence to support their claims. That absence of evidence is not surprising, for whilst studies abound upon pupil relationships in urban schools, there would seem to have been a complete lack of comparable interest in student relationships in small rural schools, so far as the United Kingdom is concerned. It is at this point, that I wish to consider the notion of peer group and to consider two studies, one urban and one rural, of pupil relationships. The urban study I have drawn from recent literature (Meyenn 1980), whilst the rural study was carried out by our own institution last year (Finch 1986).

The notion of peer group: urban and rural school comparisons

'Peer group' is, of course, a sociological concept. Strictly defined, it means 'a group of people of the same age and status who meet and interact continually' (Frankenberg 1966). A definition of that kind serves as a tool for sociological inquiry into the nature of social life. What, of course, separates the conceptual defintion and the actual social life it is designed to signify is that whilst, the definition is exceptionally neat and tidy, social life is anything but. Unless some extraordinary and contrived circumstances exist, it is almost always the case that social groups contain something of a mix of ages and slight differences of status. (Here you might wish to reflect upon whether anywhere in your social life, you are a member of a group in which everyone is within a chronological year of everyone else and where all the members are of the equal status.) With those thoughts in mind, let us see how educators can fall into the trap of believing that the sociological defintion and the social reality it seeks to label are one and the same thing. First, the urban study:

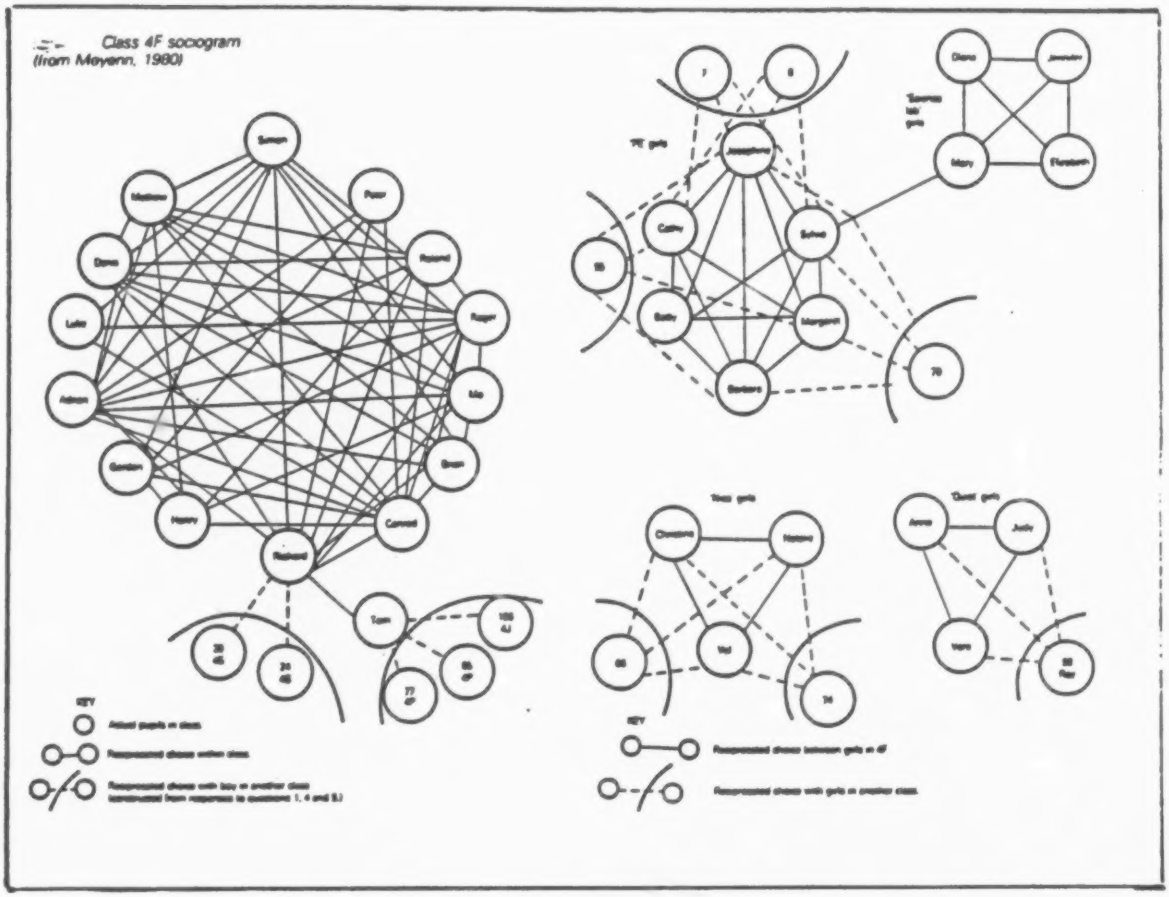
a) Peer Group Relations in an Urban Middle School

Meyenn 1980 conduced a study of peer group relationships in an urban middle school over a two year span. The school served a relatively recent urban housing estate. He focussed upon four classes in their final two years in the school, concentrating upon one class, 4F, in particular. He asked the students to name privately the children with whom they worked and played. The three questions he used for this purpose were:

1. Who do you play with after school? (evenings and weekends)
2. Who do you usually play with in the playground? (at breaks and at lunchtimes)
3. Who do you usually work with in class?

Meyenn used the children's responses to construct sociograms. His sociogram for class 4F is given on the next page.

Class 4F Sociogram (Meyenn 1980)



We can note that the relationships of the boys and the girls differ markedly. Effectively, the boys form a virtually undifferentiated single gender class group. Only one boy, Tom, stands a little alone and this is perhaps explained by the fact of his transfer, a little time previously, from another class. He, together with Richard, are the only two boys to make choices outwards from their class group. The girls characteristically, have formed tight single gender sub-groups. Three of the girls' sub-groups show linkages to four other children in the same age grade. Commenting on the patterns of relationships Meyen obsrves, first of the girls:

> *Any attempts to break up the group by other girls are resisted. The greatest 'disaster' that can befall a group is for another girl, or group to take one of 'their' girls away from them.*

Of the boys in 4F he comments:

> *The boys spent most of their time and certainly saw themselves as one big class group. Their school lives remained within the bounds of this class group and boys in other classes were classed almost as strangers...The two most obvious features of these pupil peer networks were that they were formed largely within class group boundaries and were almost entirely of the same gender... Peer networks were almost exclusively single sex in character and there tended to be very little interaction between the boys and girls*

That tightly constrained set of relationships which Meyenn depicts, in which age grade and gender strictly define friendship possibilities is not a freak result. It occurs again and again in similar studies of children's relationships in large primary and middle schools. Blyth and Derricott (1977) experts in the field, are in no doubt as to one of the prime shapers of this phenomenon:

> *...in school with its age graded organisation ... all children earn their annual increment of status... Because of their close association with the school as an institution, the children's informal relationships mirror the formal organisational structure substantially. (p79)*

It is here, in the world of the conventionally sized school, found predominantly in urban areas of the United Kingdom that the sociological definition of peer group matches reality almost exactly. In such schools, the children's peer groups do consist of people virtually of the same age and status. That this is so, is not surprising when one considers how large school organisation and its preoccupation with age group identity presents few alternative possibilities. It is at this point, that we can see the source of anxiety for those who worry about the single age peer group in the small rural school. If you draw upon large school experience and use that experience as the criterion, you are led ineluctably to the conclusion that the small rural school peer group must represent a mere shadow of what the student relationships of the larger urban school can offer. That, of course, is the conclusion reached by Plowden and fostered subsequently by many educators, politicians and administrators in the UK. The question which the Plowden Committee and those who have unquestioningly accepted its wisdom have failed to ask is whether children in small schools structure their relationships differently and if so, whether such relationships might provide different yet worthwhile educational and social possibilities. We turn now to consider the findings of a small-scale inquiry into student relations in small rural primary shools.

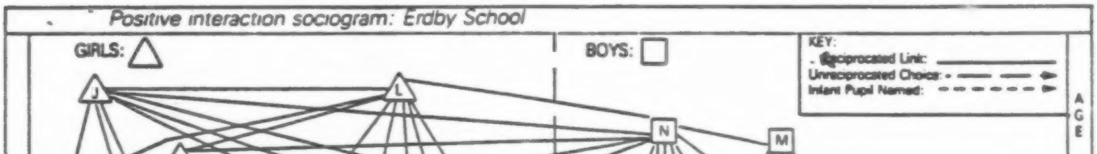
b) Peer Group Relations in Several Small Rural Schools

This study was carried out by one of our Honours students (Finch 1986) Investigations which we are currently undertaking confirm the pattern of her findings. Finch studied pupil relaticnshipos in five rural primary schools in our region. Staff sizes and school enrolments are given on the next page

School*	Number of Staff	Number of Children
Wrettingham	4	82
Northby	3	55
Erdby	3	49
Cailey	2	49
Halton	2	32

*The schools have been given pseudonyms

Finch made use of a variety of methods. She observed in classrooms and playgrounds. She used a student questionnaire and held informal interviews with teachers and students. Like Meyenn, in his urban study. Finch elicited from the students the names of children they worked with in schools and those with whom they played at break, lunchtime and out of school. From this information, Finch constructed what she called positive interaction sociograms of the students' relationships in each of the five schools. (Although she did interview infant children i.e. 5-7 year olds, she did not extract sociometric information from them.) Here is the sociogram of the Erdby students. It is reasonably typical of those of the other four schools.


Positive interaction sociogram: Erdby School

GIRLS:
BOYS:
KEY:
Reciprocated Link:
Unreciprocated Choice:
Infant Pupil Named:
CLASS 1
CLASS 2
AGE 10 - 11
AGE 9 - 10
AGE 8 - 9
AGE 7 - 8
J
L
C
M
HR
H
A
JE
P
J
C
R
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The pattern of relationships of the Erdby children differs markedly from that of Meyenn's class and also from those found commonly in larger primary schools. First, there is a gender difference. Whilst Meyenn reported an almost complete gender divide, five boys and eight girls in Erdby school make reciprocated choices. Second, whilst the seven 10-11 year old girls in Erdby school form a particularly dense network. they, like the other children, do not confine their relationships to their own age group. Twenty reciprocated links cross the age boundary between class 1 and class 2. Of these, six extend from the oldest (10-11year olds) to the youngest (7-8) year olds. Within class boundaries, nineteen relationships link the two age groups of which each class is composed.

Here are several comments made by the children in the five schools:

> *We all mix, you don't really notice. We're not sort of separate (Boy-11)*
>
> *They're just the same as 3rd years. Everybody is like everybody else (Girl-11)*
>
> *I play with my friends Ian and Mark and they're 4th years (Boy-9)*
>
> *The 4th year girls are brainy and they can help us, though sometimes they tell us to go away (Girl-10)*
>
> *We're all together really. We get away from the tables and talk to each other. We all mix up (Boy-11)*
>
> *I like the children who are any old (Boy-5)*

What can we draw from the pattern of relationships which Finch's study reveals? As we have seen, the children in Meyenn's study built their relationships in almost exact conformity to the sociological definition of peer group and to the boundary of their class. The children in Finch's study ignore both. Because the size of their schools, the size of their age groups and the mixed organisation of their classes provide them with a different context, the pattern of their relationships is different. The children both recognise the feature of age group and ignore it. They recognise the division of interest between the sexes, yet are prepared to cross the line when shared interest requires it. Status, may increase with age, but it does not act as a barrier to mixed age friendship. Nor is a mixed age friendship regarded as an odd departure from the norm. What one can say is that the context of their relationships is not first and foremost *their* class, but rather, *their* school. Essentially, the Erdby students possess an *extended peer group*. Poor fit though that extended peer group might be to the sociological definition and to the urban educator's conception of a proper peer group, what it does, by virtue of its overlap of age, gender and status is to mirror the characteristics of social groups which form the everyday workaday world outside of school.

With all that said, all that Finch's small scale study tells us is that the student peer group in the small rural primary school is distinctively different from those rather separated and class-based peer groups which the larger school appears to generate. Her study does not help us to answer the question of whether the rural school peer group is an asset or liability. I wish to consider that issue in the concluding section.

The peer group in the small rural school: asset or liability?

There are two lines of approach to answering the question. The first one is concerned with whether or not children in small schools attain less well and are less well socially adjusted than their counterparts in larger schools. That small rural schools are marked by lower levels of attainment than their larger cousins is at the heart of the charges laid against them by their critics. Now, if that is the case, one might assume, as indeed Plowden implied, that the peer group could be an influencing factor. There is, of course, a very limited area of research to help towards an answer. At worst so far as the evidence on attainment is concerned, one can record as does Lewis (1980) a verdict of not proven. A little more optimistically one can cite research such as that of Nash (1977) which indicates that, so far as basic areas of curriculum such as literacy are concerned, size of school makes no significant difference. Finally, one can note the positive Scottish finding of Johnston (1981) who observed that in school leaving examinations 'girls from sparsely populated areas often do considerably better than girls in urban areas and boys slightly better'.(2) On the matter of social adjustment, the small rural school emerges with considerable credit. Researches such as those of Campbell (1980) in the USA, Edmunds and Bessai (1977) in their Canadian and English studies and the Scottish study of Shanks and Welsh (1983), when taken together, indicate small school students as being better disposed towards school and as having a more positive view of themselves than their urban equivalents. To the extent that a person's sense of self is crucially related to the feedback received from interaction with others, it is possible to suggest that the rural peer group could be contributing positively to those effects.

The second line of approach to the question is pedagogical in nature and is to do with the way in which rural teachers perceive the student relationships in their school either as an asset or a liability. Small rural schools have had a bad time at the hands of those who wish to close them and have been in receipt of much criticism with regard to how deficient they by comparison with large urban style schools. Where teachers in small rural primary schools meet such criticism by attempting to be more like large schools for example, by organising the school and their teaching along firm age graded lines, then it may well be that the peer group becomes a liability. That, not least, because the teachers are rubbing against the natural grain of the children's relationships. Where, on the other hand, teachers adopt pedagogical principles which take account of the extended nature of the student peer group and work with its grain, then, from my experience, much of educational and social value is gained. Within our region it is possible to find such approaches. For example, one two teacher school, for part of the school week, makes use of groups composed of children from 5-11 years for active work in creative areas such as painting, textiles, woodwork and cookery. Another school, as a matter of course integrates children from 5 to 8 for scientific and environmental studies - and from observation, it is by no means the case that the younger children are merely tool holders and apprentices. It is in contexts of that kind, which allow organic student relationships to act as the cooperative basis for learning that, in my view, the extended peer group of the small rural school becomes an educational asset. Moreover, when one looks at the approaches of teachers who tap the social resources of the student peer group in ways like this, the realisation dawns that such teachers are ignoring the disadvantages which are ascribed to their circumstances and concentrating instead upon capitalising on the advantages which the small scale of their enterprise provides. That in effect, was what those rural teachers were doing when Hadow and his committee came upon them at the beginning of the Thirties. It seems a not unreasonable principle to follow half a century later.

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Notes

1. About 5,000 primary schools, i.e. 25% of all primary schools in England have a roll of 100 students or less (DES 1984). There about 1,800 schools with fewer than 51 students in England and 350 in Wales (NUT 1985). The majority of schools within this range of size are to be found in rural areas.

2. Burstall (1974) provides an intriguing speculation on an unexpected result which emerged from a National Foundation for Educational Research study of primary school students' attainment in French. The researchers had expected that pupils in small schools would perform less well than those in large schools. The reverse proved to be the case, for students in small schools consistently maintained higher standards of achievement than did those in large urban schools. She concluded:

> *The possibility remains that the high level of achievement in the small schools stems partly from the heterogeneous nature of their classes. If a given class contains pupils who vary greatly in age and ability, the individual pupil is not in direct competition with others of his own age group; the concept of a 'standard' of achievement, which a pupil of a given age 'ought' to be able to reach is difficult for either pupil or teacher to acquire. The classroom situation in the small school tends to encourage cooperative behaviour and to lack the negative motivational characteristics of the competitive classroom in which success for a few can only be achieved at the expense of failure for many.* (p31)

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Southeast Missouri State University/College Board/ Rural and Small Schools Project for Improving Achievement in the Basic Academic Competencies

INTRODUCTION

The College Board and Southeast Missouri State University have embarked on a joint project in cooperation with eastern Missouri schools to improve academic preparation for college of high school students. The project, the first of its kind in the Midwest, was developed in response to newly adopted admission policies at Southeast which includes a set of academic competencies identified by a University's Task Force on academic preparation for college. These admission standards dovetail with the recommendations of the College Board's Educational EQuality Project as outlined in the publication **Academic Preparation For College: What Students Need To Know And Be Able To Do** and the core competencies established by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education.

There are thirty-five (35) high schools in the twenty-five (25) counties served by Southeast Missouri State University that have an enrollment in grades 9-12 of fewer than 300 students. Of these, six (6) have fewer than 100 students, and an additional nine (9) have fewer than 150. Southeast Missouri State University is the only four year institution of higher education, public or private, in this section of the state. There is a legislative mandate for the University to serve the educational needs of these twenty-five (25) counties. This project is one of the most promising efforts in recent times to improve educational opportunities in the region.

HISTORY

In the Fall of 1985, Dr. Leslie Cochran, Provost at Southeast Missouri State University, appointed a Task Force on recommended High School Preparation. The membership included high school counselors, public and private school administrators, and University faculty and staff. The **Charge** to the Task Force was:

> **The purpose of the task force is to develop a set of recommendations that will guide high school students toward successful admission to the University. The primary responsibility of the group is to develop a recommended list of courses for students desiring regular admission to the University. This list should reflect recently strengthened high school graduation requirements. Additionally, the task force may identify other courses and activities which best enable students to pursue college level work and prepare statements of expectations which suggest experiences, qualities, and competencies that might enhance preparation for college and lead to greater student success.**

Task Force Activity

Initially the attention of the Task Force members was focused on the "recommended list of courses" which the **Charge** indicated as the "primary responsibility" for its work. In the discussions and deliberations, it because clear that a major concern in the minds of the participants was what evidence was available to demonstrate certain courses to be better than others in preparing high school students for success in college.

A search in the literature on this topic revealed a scarcity of research bearing directly on this concern. The literature search did yield a substantial amount of information about the kinds of academic competencies that contribute to success in college.

One of the publications that surfaced was **Academic Preparation For College: What Students Need To Know And Be Able To Do.**(1) This publication (commonly referred to as "The Green Book") became the catalyst for the remaining work of the Task Force and for its final report. Consider these excerpts: ". . . a comprehensive description of the knowledge and skills needed by all college entrants.(2) "Students are not born with the Basic Academic Competencies. They develop these competencies as a result of education and practice"(3) ". . . much of the learning . . . can be valuable to students going directly into the world of work.(4)

What a find! The College Board was contacted and asked for permission to adopt the Basic Academic competencies as part of the Admission Standards for Southeast Missouri State University. The permission was graciously given along with encouragement and support for the initiative.

THE BASIC ACADEMIC COMPETENCIES

The Basic Academic Competencies are the broad intellectual skills essential to effective work in all fields of college study. They provide a link across the disciplines of knowledge although they are not specific to any particular discipline.

The Basic Academic Competencies are reading, writing, speaking and listening, mathematics, reasoning, and studying. These competencies are interrelated to and interdependent with the Basic Academic Subjects. Without such competencies, knowledge of history, science, language, and all other subjects is unattainable.

The Basic Academic Competencies are developed abilities, the outcomes of learning and intellectual discourse. There are different levels of competency; they can be defined in measurable terms.

Although the Basic Academic competencies are not always identified explicitly, spelling them out provides a way to tell students what is expected of them. Knowledge of what is expected is crucial to effective learning.

In order to do effective work in college, it is essential that all students have the following academic competencies.

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[1] The College Board; **Academic Preparation For College: What Students Need To Know and Be Able To Do**; The College Board; New York; 1983; 46 pp.

[2] Ibid., p. 2.

[3] Ibid., p. 3.

[4] Loc. Cit.

Reading

The ability to identify and comprehend the main and subordinate ideas in a written work and to summarize the ideas in one's own words.

The ability to recognize different purposes and methods of writing, to identify a writer's point of view and tone, and to interpret a writer's meaning inferentially as well as literally.

The ability to separate one's personal opinions and assumptions from the writer's.

The ability to vary one's reading speed and method (survey, skim, review, question, and master) according to the type of material and one's purpose for reading.

The ability to use the features of books and other reference materials, such as table of contents, preface, introduction, titles and subtitles, index, glossary, appendix, bibliography.

The ability to define unfamiliar words by decoding, using contextual clues, or by using a dictionary.

Writing

The ability to conceive ideas about a topic for the purpose of writing.

The ability to organize, select, and relate ideas and to outline and develop them in coherent paragraphs.

The ability to write Standard English sentences with correct:
    sentence structure;
    verb forms;
    punctuation, capitalization, possessives, plural forms, and other matters of mechanics;
    word choice and spelling.

The ability to vary one's writing style, including vocabulary and sentence structure, for different readers and purposes.

The ability to improve one's own writing by restructuring, correcting errors, and rewriting.

The ability to gather information from primary and secondary sources; to write a report using this research; to quote, paraphrase, and summarize accurately; and to cite sources properly.

Speaking and Listening

The ability to engage critically and constructively in the exchange of ideas, particularly during class discussions and conferences with instructors.

The ability to answer and ask questions coherently and concisely, and to follow spoken instructions.

The ability to identify and comprehend the main and subordinate ideas in lectures and discussions, and to report accurately what others have said.

The ability to conceive and develop ideas about a topic for the purpose of speaking to a group; to choose and organize related ideas; to present them clearly in Standard English; and to evaluate similar presentations by others.

The ability to vary one's use of spoken language to suit different situations.

Mathematics

The ability to perform, with reasonable accuracy, the computations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division using natural numbers, fractions, decimals, and integers.

The ability to make and use measurements in both traditional and metric units.

The ability to use effectively the mathematics of:
- integers, fractions, and decimals;
- ratios, proportions, and percentages;
- roots and powers;
- algebra;
- geometry.

The ability to make estimates and approximations, and to judge the reasonableness of a result.

The ability to formulate and solve a problem in mathematical terms.

The ability to select and use appropriate approaches and tools in solving problems (mental computation, trial and error, paper-and-pencil techniques, calculator, and computer).

The ability to use elementary concepts of probability and statistics.

Reasoning

The ability to identify and formulate problems, as well as the ability to propose and evaluate ways to solve them.

The ability to recognize and use inductive and deductive reasoning, and to recognize fallacies in reasoning.

The ability to draw reasonable conclusions from information found in various sources, whether written, spoken, or displaced in tables and graphs, and to defend one's conclusions rationally.

The ability to comprehend, develop, and use concepts and generalizations.

The ability to distinguish between fact and opinion.

Studying

This set of abilities is different in kind from those that precede it. They are set forth here because they constitute the key abilities in learning how to learn. Successful study skills are necessary for acquiring the other five competencies as well as for achieving the desired outcomes in Basic Academic Subjects. Students are unlikely to be efficient in any part of their work without these study skills.

> The ability to set study goals and priorities consistent with stated course objectives and one's own progress, to establish surroundings and habits conducive to learning independently or with others, and to follow a schedule that accounts for both short- and long-term projects.
>
> The ability to locate and use resources external to the classroom (for example, libraries, computers, interviews, and direct observation), and to incorporate knowledge from such sources into the learning process.
>
> The ability to develop and use general and specialized vocabularies, and to use them for reading, writing, speaking, listening, computing, and studying.
>
> The ability to understand and to follow customary instructions for academic work in order to recall, comprehend, analyze, summarize, and report the main ideas from reading, lectures, and other academic experiences; and to synthesize knowledge and apply it to new situations.
>
> The ability to prepare for various types of examinations and to devise strategies for pacing, attempting or omitting questions, thinking, writing, and editing according to the type of examinations; to satisfy other assessments of learning in meeting course objectives such as laboratory performance, class participation, simulation, and students' evaluations.
>
> The ability to accept constructive criticism and learn from it.(5)

THE COLLEGE BOARD WORKSHOPS

The "Green Book," in addition to the Basic Academic Competencies, includes a section of Basic Academic Subjects. This section treats the content areas within which the competencies should be developed and nurtured. These content areas are English, the arts, mathematics, science, social studies and foreign language. The College Board recognized early on a need for inservice work with secondary school teachers to focus attention on how to develop Basic Academic Competence within the Basic Academic Subjects. In response to this need, the College Board decided to provide workshops to secondary schools at no cost, except for materials.

In the fall of 1986, Southeast Missouri State University and the College Board entered into a project to provide workshops jointly to further the objectives of both institutions. The College Board is moving forward its goal of better preparation of students for college, and Southeast Missouri University is moving forward its twin goals of enhancing the college experience and improving the success of students at the institution.

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[5] Ibid., pp. 7-10.

The response has been highly positive. This project involving cooperation among secondary schools, many of them very small, a regional university, and a national organization with the long standing history of accomplishment of the College Board is the best opportunity for improving secondary school instruction to emerge in the past thirty years! Best of all, the opportunity is available to any school, of any size, located anywhere.

To secure further information about participation, all you need to do is contact the Regional office of the College Board serving your location. Or you may contact the Office of Academic Affairs, the College Board, 888 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York, 10106. The telephone number of (212) 582-6210.

In closing, it seems highly appropriate to share the remarks of Nicholas Murray Butler on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the College Board on November 1, 1925:

> It would be unfortunate not to point out the essential point of this whole undertaking. . . . The important thing is the close and intimate association of the secondary schools and colleges in dealing with a common interest and a common task. What this Board has done is to break down the isolation of the schools and the isolation of the colleges and to bring them together into close and constant contact with the solution of their common problems. . . . The common understanding, the common sympathy, and the common knowledge that have been developed are a source of strength, the full power of which has yet to be tested in ways that we cannot now foresee.

DEVELOPING A TEACHER INCENTIVE STRUCTURE FOR RURAL, IMPOVERISHED, DISADVANTAGED, OR IMPAIRED SCHOOL DISTRICTS

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DEVELOPING A TEACHER INCENTIVE STRUCTURE FOR RURAL, IMPOVERISHED, DISADVANTAGED, OR IMPAIRED SCHOOL DISTRICTS

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Clemson University

The principal investigator will present a plan for implementing a merit pay structure for use by rural, impoverished, disadvantaged, or impaired school districts. The plan was developed in a consortium of three rural school districts in South Carolina and was funded by the United States Department of Education, Secretary's Discretionary Fund.

The principal investigator and chairman of the steering committee are special educators and worked in collaboration with regular educators, administrators, and staff to develop a comprehensive educator evaluation system which could be utilized by all elements of a local education agency (LEA) through the phases of recruiting, interviewing, employment, maintenance, promotion, merit pay, or termination.

The proposal has implications for training of teachers at the pre-professional, professional, and in-service levels. Goals of the proposed activities were to (1) increase the measurable quality of applicants and teachers in rural, impoverished or impaired LEA's, (2) improve the validity of subjective judgements of the quality of applicants and teachers in the LEA, and (3) vastly increase and improve the range of the pool of applicants for teaching jobs in the LEA's.

In the first round of the project activities, teachers, staff, administrators and consultants identified and defined seven (7) requisite qualities of professional educators. These seven qualities rank ordered from most important to least important were determined

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to be; (1) Content/Level Knowledge Mastery, (2) Instructional Management, (3) Classroom Management, (4) Communication Skills, (5) Planning Skills, (6) Professional Qualities, and (7) Personal Qualities.

In the second phase, smaller groups of educators designated as Task Forces reviewed relevant literature and with the assistance of a consultant subsequently developed a list of from 12 to 15 behaviorally stated manifestations for each of the seven requisite qualities.

Each Task Force developing the competencies also identified conventional and unobtrusive methods to evaluate each manifestation. A separate Task Force identified additional applications for unobtrusive measures of teacher behaviors following a model developed for non-reactive research techniques (Sechrest, et al, 1966).

The presentor will focus on defining the constructs unique to the project activities, the behaviorally stated competencies, and the conventional and unobtrusive or non-reactive measures used to assess the teacher behaviors. Additionally, there will be a focus on the recruiting design, the structured interview, and the evaluation procedures for employment, continuation, promotion, merit pay, and termination procedures. Probably the most unique feature for teacher trainers and Local Education Agencies (LEA) will be the unobtrusive measures techniques employed to evaluate applicants and employees.

A copy of the schematic for the project development and activities is attached as Figure 1. A copy of the Taxonomic Matrix of Requisite TeacherQualities, Unobtrusive Measure Features, and Behavioral Observations is included as Figure 2. A Sample page from the Task

Force report on Content/Level Knowledge Mastery, showing behavioral statements, unobtrusive measures and conventional measures is included as Figure 3.

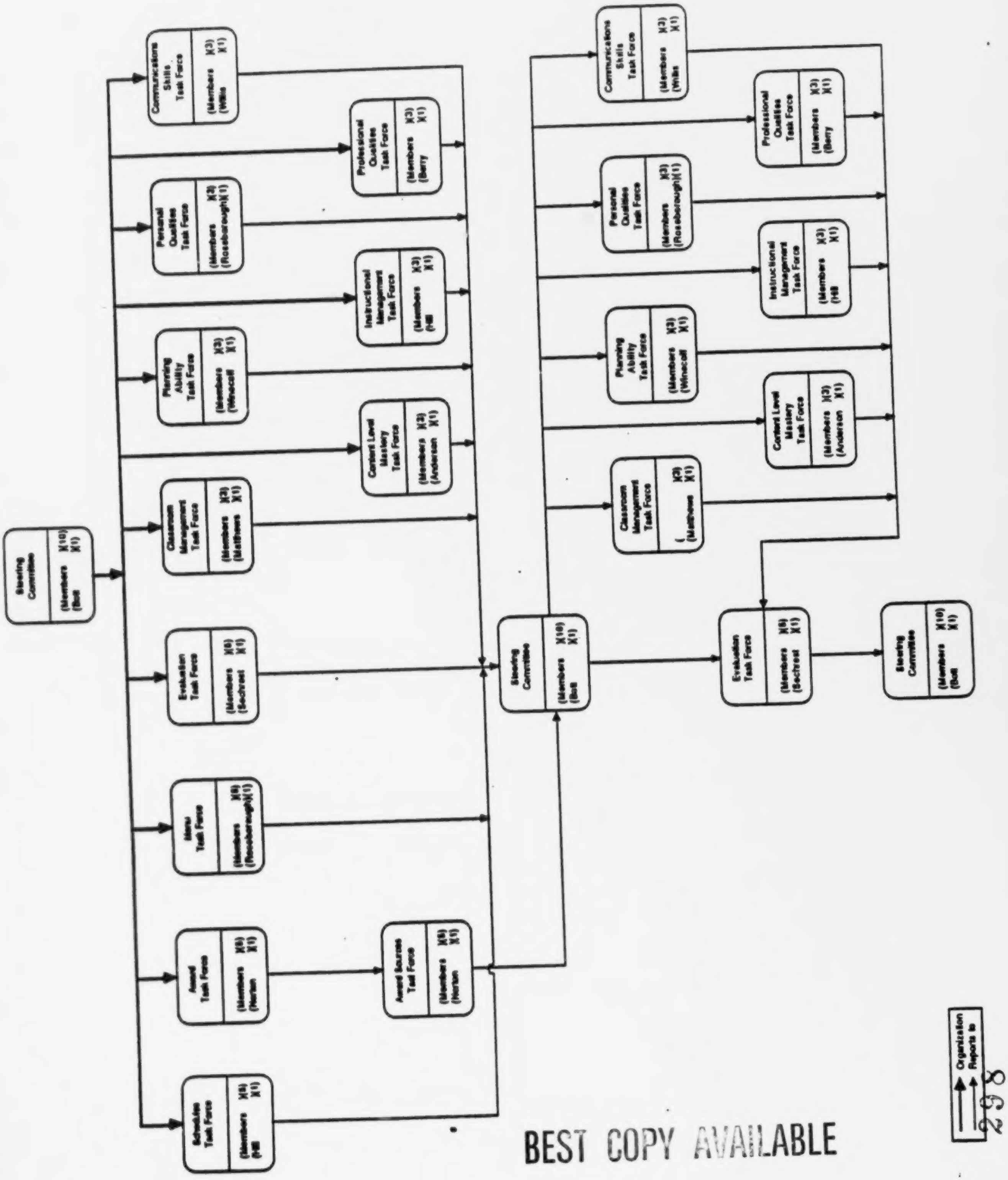
The principal investigator is indebted to Dr. Lee Sechrest, Head, Department of Psychology, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, for his assistance as a major consultant in this project. Dr. Sechrest has served private business, military, federal government, and educational institutions as a consultant in the area of unobtrusive measures.

REFERENCE

Webb, E. J., Campbell, D. T., Schwartz, R. D., and Sechrest, L. *Unobtrusive Measures; Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences.* Chicago. Rand McNally and Company, 1966.

Figure 1

Developing Teacher Incentive Structures


Steering Committee
(Members)(10)
(Bolt)(1)
Schedules Task Force
(Members)(5)
(Hill)(1)
Award Task Force
(Members)(5)
(Horton)(1)
Menu Task Force
(Members)(6)
(Roseborough)(1)
Evaluation Task Force
(Members)(5)
(Sechrest)(1)
Classroom Management Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Matthews)(1)
Planning Ability Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Winecoff)(1)
Personal Qualities Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Roseborough)(1)
Communications Skills Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Willis)(1)
Award Sources Task Force
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(Horton)(1)
Content Level Mastery Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Anderson)(1)
Instructional Management Task Force
(Members)(3)
(Hill)(1)
Professional Qualities Task Force
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Steering Committee
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Classroom Management Task Force
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Planning Ability Task Force
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Personal Qualities Task Force
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Organization
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Figure 2
A TAXONOMIC MATRIX OF REQUISITE TEACHER QUALITIES, UNOBTRUSIVE MEASURE FEATURES, AND BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS*

UNOBTRUSIVE MEASURE FEATURE	REQUISITE QUALITIES OF TEACHERS						
	Content/Level Knowledge	Personal Qualities	Classroom Management	Instructional Management	Communication Skills	Planning Ability	Professional Qualities
Frequency	frequency of volunteering information in group discussions	frequency of smiling, positive comments; frequency of complaints from parents	frequency of disciplinary actions		frequency of grammar and syntax errors		number of professional activities
Magnitude	knowledge of esoteric material most people do not know		seriousness of worst complaint from parents		seriousness of grammar and syntax errors	produces only sketchy plan	highest office held in a professional organization
Latency	speed, efficiency in recovering needed information			time from first bell until class is organized each day	time required to compose a letter or memo	time required to submit a plan (quick response= good ability)	time from degree to joining organization
Resistance to change	memory for facts, details in field, (well consolidated knowledge does not fade)	standing up to peer pressure, e.g., not to spend so much time with parents	consistency of discipline over time and circumstance	adheres to plans			maintains memberships and activities over time
Functional smoothness		ease in handling difficult situations with parents (few complaints)	number of students milling about at transitions in activities	stays on schedule		produces plan lacking in transitions	
Association	affiliation with interest groups known to have expertise	involved in community					membership in professional organization
Acquisitions	ownership of books, periodicals, special materials	personal belongings in classroom indicate warmth, interest in children		has needed materials on hand in classroom	owns books on communications skills		has acquired signs, symbols of professional identity
Consumption				excessive use of materials	personal dictionary is well worn		
Effort	attends relevant meetings, exhibits, etc., on own time	does favors for children, parents at own expense of time, energy		arrives early to prepare for class	writes letters, memos with style and of more than minimal length		willingness to devote own time and energies to professional activities
Inappropriateness		harsh discipline (any reaction inappropriate to stimulus)	children allowed boisterous activity just before a demanding task	class involved in activity inappropriate for time/place	explanations are well-organized	differentiation in plans among tasks and activities	displays signs and symbols of sports or social rather than professional groups
Bias		differential treatment of students by race, sex, social class, etc.		too much time allocated to favorite classroom activity	parents call in to find out what they are supposed to do in response to a memo		
Cognitive articulation		has well-differentiated knowledge of children and their families, e.g., knows parents first name	has self-designed list of rules and expectations				can explain mission and structure of professional organization
Revelatory	surprising ignorance of fundamental knowledge	has an unpleasant nickname known to most children and colleagues		children often take home unfinished projects			

* Format adapted from; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, Sechrest, and Groves, 1981.

Figure 3

CONTENT/LEVEL MASTERY

Condition and Behavior	Unobtrusive Measure	Conventional Measure
1. Given two questions about teachers, colleagues would indicate that the teacher is considered competent in content area.	1.1 Observe and record the teachers to whom others turn for help with subject matter mastery.	1.1.1 Questionnaire. List three teachers you if you were having difficulty with a topic?
	1.2 Observe and record teacher's requests for teachers of own children based on subject mastery.	1.2.1 Questionnaire. Which three teachers would you choose to teach your child?
2. Given data describing the teacher's classroom teaching (e.g., written narratives, completed observational checklists, audiotape recordings) there would be evidence of:		
a. no blatant, uncorrected content errors,	2.1 Student peer teachers or parent reported or documented content errors.	2.1.1 Utilize APT or PET Checklist.
b. content presented in a novel, original, or stimulating manner, and	2.2 Student, peer teachers or parent reported or documented boring presentations.	2.2.1 See 2.1.1
c. content presented in such a way as to cause students to engage in higher-order thinking when appropriate (e.g., application, analysis, synthesis, or evaluation).	2.3 Student, peer, or parent reported or documented exclusive reliance on low-order learning.	2.3.1 See 2.1.1
	2.4 Analysis of written test items for evidence of expectation for higher-order teaching.	
	2.5 Observation of ways material is presented.	
	2.6 Analysis of assignments for evidence of expectation for higher order thinking.	

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ELEMENTARY P.A.C.E.
(Elementary Programming Alternatives Committed to Excellence)

The purpose of this alternative program is to address the educational needs of school aged children who are unprepared to begin a traditional school experience. Many of these children may not be totally ready for the complexities of a structured school experience until they are 8-10 years old. This group of children typically experience failure and are frequently suspected of being handicapped at a rate higher than others in their age group. While there appear to be a variety of factors which contribute to the failure experiences of these children in a conventional classroom, two significant factors appear to place many children "at risk": (1) the demands for academic accomplishment at a very young age, and (2) the lack of the appropriate language base required for successful school functioning.

The rate of placement of students in all types of special education programs at the early elementary level was felt to be unacceptably high. Subsequent multifactored reviews of these early placements frequently indicated their lack of appropriateness. These results suggested that many students were being inappropriately labeled as handicapped primarily because of their lack of success in these early grades. In addition, there are children who have needs but who are not eligible for special education but without assistance will later experience a lack of good success. These children's needs, left unattended, are likely to lead to special education placement for these youngsters at a later time.

The district's approach consists of an early intervention program of significant testing and action prior to entrance into kindergarten with continuous diagnostic teaching-testing provided throughout the program. A triad of classrooms is provided for up to four years for those children who continue to require assistance and a modified curriculum based on a child centered whole language format.

Chapter I funds are utilized for a teacher's salary and to provide an aide for the classroom. Since many of these students qualify for Chapter I services, financing for a portion of this program comes from these funds. Instructional support personnel are Chapter I funded. Children in this program, instead of the more common "pull-out" approach, experience an intense program of intervention throughout the entire school day and year. It is thought that the intensity of the program is much more effective than the more dated "pull-out" approach.

The teachers in the three classrooms are experienced and each picked for their expertise. The program requires no additional staff and utilizes other current personnel to provide art, music, and physical education. Special education personnel (psychologist and coordinators as well our area SERRC resources) are used in valid, productive ways. The work of outside agencies is also more easily coordinated. The program reduces the number of "high risk" students in regular classrooms which allows an increased class size and reduces demands on teacher time for observation and diagnostic work ups and meetings.

Placement of children in special education programs is an on-going process and may be avoided or delayed by this alternative intervention. A special education multifactored evaluation by appropriate district personnel of specific children suspected of being handicapped may be initiated at any time along the continuum. When this evaluation is completed and if the child is found eligible for special education, the latitude of this program provides for a variety of appropriate educational options.

Speech and language development is provided through an innovation plan which uses one speech pathologist as both a provider of direct services and a resource/consultation person and one recertified speech pathologist-language specialist as the classroom teacher in the first grade unit.

The extended day kindergarten teacher is an early childhood specialist, a Chapter I reading teacher and a language specialist. The second/third grade teacher is also an early childhood teacher and a regular classroom teacher. Each of the teachers involved have language development, extensive reading, and special education courses or experience in their backgrounds. Three experienced Chapter I aides serve the classrooms. One aide is trained to provide the computer program WRITING TO READ for those children who are ready for the levels.

IMPLEMENTATION:

Based on information gathered by preschool educational service providers (MR/DD Preschool Programs, Headstart, evaluations provided by medical clinics, school districts, SERRC or outside agencies, and the results of a comprehensive kindergarten screening program provided by teachers, aides, volunteers, nurses, special education staff and administrators) all incoming kindergarten children are evaluated. The testing includes administration of: (1) the Kindergarten Diagnostic Instrument (KDI) which gives a computerized print-out of a child's readiness profile, (2) the Communication Assessment Screening (C.A.S.T.) a speech and language screening instrument, (3) a vision test, (4) a hearing acuity screening test, (5) gross and fine motor skills, (6) social/emotional factors, (7) a case history describing other health concerns, and (8) a parent conference for any other pertinent information.

Parent conferences are held and the staff makes recommendations and distributes information concerning those children determined to need immediate intervention. Some children are recommended for another year of pre-school placement prior to entering kindergarten.

In the first weeks of school all kindergarten files are reviewed, and intervention continues on a referral and observation basis. Additional Chapter I tests are administered and those children who qualify for that program are recommended for an extended day kindergarten program. Parent conferences are held and those children for whom permission is given are provided with a whole day kindergarten with one half day in a regular kindergarten. These children eat lunch at school in a cafeteria and attend a child centered, whole language extended day kindergarten. At year's end, these children as well as those who demonstrated special needs and who are considered "at risk" by the teaching team, are reviewed. A parent conference is held requesting placement in the "high risk" first grade or a retention option is offered for selected children. Special education classroom placement may also be presented as an option. Children enrolled in the High Risk First Grade are provided with additional curriculum modification and the child picks up where he left off in both the formal "mainstream" curriculum and his development. The student is provided a wide range of activities with the teacher continuing to function as a facilitator. An experience-rich, language literacy program integrates the texts of the reading program and the math program is enriched with concrete experiences which help develop student readiness for the move to abstract reasoning. Thinking skills are taught and attention is given to learning skills and career educaton goal of work ethic and independent functioning. A Modfied Montissori base helps children learn concepts, order and sequence and a TRIBES Program helps children develop an improved self image, an "I Can"--attitude motivation and pride in task completion and a consideration of human rights.

ACADEMIC COOPERATIVES

Creative Collaborations Utilizing Human and Technical Resources

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to

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ABSTRACT

ACADEMIC COOPERATIVES

Creative Collaborations Utilizing Human and Technical Resources

As the national educational reform reports filtered down to the law-making bodies of each state, most law-makers responded first by increasing the high school graduation requirements and college entrance standards. Across the nation the rural response to this and other reform has been varied. The purpose of this presentation is to give both the legislative and the rural, small school response to meeting the challenge of reform in the state of Oklahoma.

In the 1985 session of the Oklahoma legislature, one million dollars was appropriated for small school academic cooperatives. These cooperatives were funded by competitive grants for curriculum areas of math, science, foreign language, computer education and music. There were two definitions of cooperatives: one, a school district of 800 enrollment or less with an institution of higher education; the other, a district of 800 or less with a school district of any size. The funds could be expended for personnel, equipment, instructional-related supplies and transportation.

Many creative collaborations were developed by the rural schools in Oklahoma. Of the 611 school districts, over 300 have participated during the last three years. In the 1986-1987 school year as well as the current year, funds were appropriated for these efforts. Many alternate instructional delivery systems were created and utilized. A description of the cooperatives is given which includes: shared teacher arrangements, shared resources, and shared facilities. The higher education cooperatives with rural schools include courses delivered via satellite, downloading software for preview purposes, and other distance learning partnerships.

Sandy Garrett

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As the national educational reform reports filtered down to the law-making bodies of each state, most law-makers responded first be increasing the high school graduation requirements and college entrance standards. Across the nation the rural response to this and other reform has been varied. This paper will address both the legislative and the rural, small school response to meeting the challenge of reform in the state of Oklahoma.

Rural School History in Oklahoma

Presently, Oklahoma has 611 school districts with their own local boards of governance. Prior to becoming a state in 1907, what is now the state of Oklahoma was actually two territories: Indian territory and Oklahoma territory. The Territorial Legislature, in its first session in 1890, adopted school laws similar to those of the state of Kansas which gave the responsibility for educating the school-age children principally to each local community. These pioneers as well as Indian populations organized one-room, one teacher, eight grade schools within walking distance of every rural family. Obviously, the school soon became overcrowded; however, there were generally teachers available to accept these low-paying positions. Teachers were certified by County Superintendents on the basis of examinations prepared by the Territorial Department of Education.

In 1911, the legislature established an appointed State Board of Education and called for the election of a State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The State Board of Education called for a consolidation of the numerous rural schools which had been established at the rate of four to a township. In 1911, Oklahoma State Legislative action gave the State Board of Education the authority to consolidate school districts.
Various efforts and incentives were made by the State Legislature in 1913 and 1919 to reduce the number of school districts. The county superintendents were given arbitrary power to annex school districts and

to disperse districts with fewer than eight children by annexing to adjoining districts. County Superintendents were elected officials; therefore, were reluctant to close schools which communities wanted to keep. By 1945, road improvement made transportation more feasible.

In 1947, the Oklahoma Legislature enacted major legislation to bring about additional school district reorganization. The law state that any district not maintaining its school for one year would be annexed, and if the average daily attendance fell below thirteen in any elementary district, it would be annexed, unless it could be declared an "isolated" district. This law had more effect than former legislation as evidence by the number of school closings during that era.

Although there has been a steady migration of rural residents to the urban areas, Oklahoma remains a rural state today . There are only three metropolitan areas in the state: Tulsa, Oklahoma City, and Lawton. The remainder of the state is made up of towns, villages, and a good deal of open countryside.

Oklahoma is a state of small schools. There are currently 611 school districts in Oklahoma. 154 of these are dependent districts (K-8). Three/fourths of Oklahoma's school districts have less than 1000 average daily attendance. Two/thirds of the districts have less than 500 average daily attendance. By national standards most of Oklahoma's 611 school districts are considered from small to extremely small. Many of the state's districts are relatively large in area and isolated. As in the past, transportation is a problem. It is sometimes prohibitively expensive in view of distances and time involved.

At the present time, the statutes allow districts to remain open if they can meet state accreditation standards and financial obligations. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Dr. John Folks, promotes the philosophy that small schools that can finance quality academic programs. Any other decision to close or annex is vested with the local community.

Impact of National Reform Reports

The 1980s brought forth a series of reform reports challenging the education community. In 1983 The National Commission on Excellence in Education issues its report "A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Education Reform." Later came The Carnegie Report and others that called for a number of recommendations from strengthening the high school graduation requirements to raising requirements for college and university admissions.

Many of the recommendations from these reports presented special problems for rural schools. Not to mention the question of adequate funding , one of the most serious problems is appropriate staffing, particularly if the recommendations to add specific required courses to the curriculum are taken into consideration. Small rural schools must hire a sufficient number of teachers to handle a basic program regardless of the number of students. The need to find and hire additional teachers from the very limited school budgets could produce a severe strain.

Oklahoma Raises Requirements

In reaction to the wave of national reports on reform, Oklahoma raised the number of units required for high school graduation, redefined the "basics," and set new higher standards for college admission. The state minimum high school graduation requirements were increased from 18 to 20 units in 1981. The new requirements changed from one to two years of math, one to two years of lab science, one year of American History, and 1/2 unit of Oklahoma history to two years of social studies, plus ten additional units and keeping the four units of English.

In 1984, the Oklahoma Regents for Higher Education proposed a phased-in set of graduation/college entrance requirements which will be in place for the Oklahoma high school graduates with full implementation of the new admission standards beginning no later than the fall of 1988. These requirements include four years of English, three years of math, two years of science (including two laboratory experiences for those planning to enroll and matriculate through four-year colleges and universities), and two years of social studies. A priority academic elective is two years of the same foreign language. Additional acceptable electives are computer science, speech, sociology, and psychology, and experience in the arts strongly recommended.

ACADEMIC COOPERATIVES

The literature cites the use of several names when describing a cooperative. They include cooperatives, combines, leagues, alliances, consortia, etc., but they all stand for the same principle: "providing a representative process for districts to cooperatively accomplish tasks based on common and critical need." (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1985) Cooperative efforts by school districts in Oklahoma have, in the past, been primarily concerned with serving handicapped students. Essentially, these cooperatives were several districts sharing expenses to hire teachers to travel from district to district to serve the needs of the various handicapped students including but not limited to those with learning disabilities.

Cooperative Legislation

As Dr. Jonathan Sher mentions in Heavy Meddle, his critique of the North Carolina's proposed "merger" plan, "there are a variety of alternatives to consolidation that can expand educational opportunities and enhance cost-effectiveness---without abolishing existing units. One such alternative is the voluntary sharing of resources across district lines. In an effort to encourage the small/rural districts of Oklahoma to utilize this alternative as well as assist the districts in meeting the increased high school graduation requirements and college entrance standards, the first session of the Fortieth Legislature (1985) appropriated one million dollars for small school academic cooperatives. These cooperatives were funded by competitive grants administered through the Office of Rural Education in the State Department of Education for curriculum areas of math, science, foreign language, computer education and music.

One of the most difficult tasks in the development of the legislation was the establishment of a definition of rural school. After consideration of isolation and density factors, a settlement was agreed to on a numerical definition. A school district of 800 average daily attendance or less was considered a small/rural district. In Oklahoma, this included 484 districts in 1985. A cooperative was further defined in two ways: one, a school district of 800 enrollment or less may cooperate with an institution of higher education; the other, a district of 800 or less may cooperative with a school district of any size.

Funding

The legislation provided for funding a cooperative effort up to a $50,000. maximum. These monies could be expended for equipment, personnel, instructional-related supplies and transportation. Funding was prohibited from being spent on capital outlay. The cooperative fiscal agent was always a district under 800 average daily attendance. Even though other district could participate in the cooperative effort, they could not participate in the funding. Funding was continued in the 1986 Legislative Session although only $900,000. was appropriated. During the most recent session (1987) the funding was brought back to the original $1,000,000.00 level.

Creative Collaboratives

During the past three years, the Office of Rural Education of the Oklahoma State Department of Education has funded 164 academic cooperatives. These 164 cooperatives efforts represent involvement of over 300 school districts. These cooperatives include shared teachers arrangements, shared resources, shared facilities, shared use of technology, and collaborations with higher education institutions. This paper will outline only a few examples of the cooperatives developed and funded because of this small school cooperative legislation.

Shared Teacher Cooperatives

In many of the academic cooperatives formed through this grant opportunity, a "circuit riding" teacher was hired to serve from two to three districts. This certified teacher was usually hired to teach advanced math, science or foreign language. In many of these arrangements it was the first time the district involved had offered their students a foreign language or the advanced courses. Likewise, many of the teachers employed by this cooperative had been unemployed or not working in their field. It is very expensive for a small district to hire a specialized teacher full time for a small number of students and in many cases it is difficult for rural school administrators to find certified teachers. The shared teachers were paid transportation costs with grant monies. Over the past three years, sixty-nine shared-teacher cooperatives (many included more than one teacher) were established through this funding opportunity. Although the research is not complete on the longevity of the cooperative teacher arrangement, it appears that most become locally-funded programs after the initial funding.

Shared Facility Cooperatives

An interdistrict cooperative effort in its third year of existence and grant funding is Challenge '85 which is located on the banks of Lake Hudson in Mayes County, Oklahoma. This innovative and exemplary program was developed by the independent (K-12) districts of Salina, Locust Grove, and Chouteau. The three small rural high school districts combined to renovate a former dependent school district building centrally located among the three districts. The cooperative facility was designed to house high achieving high school students from the three districts for a one-half day curriculum of advanced math, science, computer education, and foreign language. This unique arrangement provided a new, competitive peer group of high achieving students from Salina, Locust Grove, and Chouteau. Over thirty students are enrolled in this three-hour academic block which would in all probability not be offered without this collaborative effort.

SHARED EFFORTS UTILIZING TECHNOLOGY

Computer Networks

One of the most unique efforts utilizing technology is a cooperative which involves a computer network with its primary purpose to allow rural school personnel to preview various curriculum software at their local school site. It is the fourth of its kind in the country. As an extended benefit to this network is an electronic mail network established among the sixty districts. The Support Center at East Central University of Ada, Oklahoma serves as the host with its mainframe linked to over sixty rural school districts as well as the Oklahoma State Department of Education. Software from national publishers and public domain is available for preview at each local site. Selected software can be downloaded to the local school. Among the numerous advantages to this system is the ability to preview software before purchase. It is estimated that a great amount of money is wasted in the purchasing of software that is not previewed, or is not compatible to the available hardware. Small districts have limited funds for these purchases and it is predicted that there will be a substantial savings to schools on the network. As the system grows, there will be pilot reporting from the rural schools to the State Department of Education utilizing the network.

Satellite-Delivered Instruction

The State of Oklahoma has taken the lead position in satellite education during the past three years. Over 100 school districts are currently receiving satellite-delivered instruction from Oklahoma State University. After piloting German by Satellite in 1985 at Beaver School District, a rural district in Oklahoma's panhandle, the Oklahoma State Board of Education gave the nod to expand the network which was developed at the College of Arts and Sciences at Oklahoma State University. In cooperation with the State Department of Education, the College of Arts and Sciences offers a curriculum which has expanded to include, German I, German II, AP Physics, AP Calculus, and Trigonometry.

Professors at the University develop the coursework according to the State Department of Education curriculum learner outcomes and are approved after a program application is filed in the Office of Rural Education. A certified grade-level teacher is present in the rural school classroom and facilitates the program on the two-three days the classes are not being transmitted live from the OSU campus. A computer-assisted instructional component is a key element to the courses. Specially designed software is utilized for all the courses on the non-broadcast days. A voice-recognition unit (for pronunciation practice), a 1-800 number, and electronic mail make this distance learning project an adventure in learning.

Satellite Cooperatives

As the pilot satellite course was being approved by the State Board of Education the Small School Cooperative Legislation was being written. It was determined that the satellite programs would qualify for the cooperative grants as a single district under 800 average daily attendance cooperating with an institution of higher education (OSU); thus, the network of schools participating in the satellite programming from the College of Arts and Sciences expanded. The grant provided a one-time funding opportunity of approximately $10,000.00 which could be expended for equipment and/or hardware, instructional supplies, and one subscription ($1,500.). Ninety-five districts have received funding for the satellite network from this legislation. Many Oklahoma districts larger than 800 students have joined the network in order to receive the advanced courses by satellite.

School/Business Partnership Funding

Cotton Electric Services, the non-profit subsidiary of Cotton Electric Cooperative in Walters, Oklahoma, demonstrates a partnership between schools and local business groups. As a way of assisting local schools in rural districts hard-hit by state funding cuts, the local electric utility cooperative used their 1985 profit margin gains to provide satellite television receiving equipment to local schools in the southwestern

Oklahoma district. The equipment allows the schools to supplement instructional programming with materials and broadcasts from a variety of local and national sources, professional development teleconferencing as well as participate in the programming from the College of Arts and Sciences at OSU.

Interactive Teaching Systems

The small school cooperative funds have also provided assistance for a rural school telecommunication cooperative with the four rural school districts in Beaver County (in the northwestern panhandle area of Oklahoma). These districts form a rural school telecommunications cooperative which will provide a fiberoptic system of linking or networking educational resources among districts. A specialized teacher at one of the sites will conduct a completely interactive, audio and visual, instructional program to students at the other sites. The student enrollment in each of these districts range from 175 to 575. The small school cooperative funding has made it possible to establish the interactive classrooms at the four sites. The cooperative has received matching funding from the Robert S. and Gracye B. Kerr Foundation. Though a partnership effort with the school districts and the local telephone company this state-of-the-art, fiberoptic system should be operational before the fall of 1988.

Summary

The discussion of this paper is only a sampler of the cooperative activity in the rural/small school districts which was begun as a result of the Oklahoma Legislature's effort in providing the small school cooperative grants. The Legislature's goal may have originally been to respond to the national reform movement; however, the results from that response appear it will be a continuing investment. The 2.9 million dollars have been invested not only in cooperative programs, but also into beginning a dialogue among rural educators for finding creative solutions through cooperative ventures.

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K-12 Model of Critical Thinking for Small and Rural Schools

Purpose

The purpose of this presentation is to describe in detail a three-year in-service training model for implementing critical thinking skills into Grades K-12 in twenty-two rural school districts in OUR Cooperative, Arkansas. Specifically, the grant funding source; a description of the model with an emphasis on the theoretical base of the model, the project goals, the in-service workshops, the Bitner Model, the role of the administrator, teachers, students, school board members, and parents, and evaluation techniques; and actual video-taped examples of the model will be presented.

Funding

The three-year Critical Thinking Grant is funded by the Winthrop Rockefeller Foundation, Little Rock, Arkansas. The total amount of the grant is $ 30,000 with the allocation of $ 10,000 per year for the three-year grant period. Although the grant period is three years, each year's funding is dependent upon the execution of the grant goals and results of the evaluation procedures.

Theoretical Base of the Bitner Model

The Bitner Model is based on the theoretical and applied research on developmental psychology (Inhelder & Piaget, 1958); methods for producing holistic learning; generic thinking processes or tools (Chuska, 1986; de Bono, 1973, 1983a, 1983b); repertoire of teaching strategies for teaching critical thinking and problem solving processes; creative, logical, reflective, and critical thinking skills; the spiralling curriculum (Bruner, 1962); and relevancy of the curriculum (Bruner, 1962). Strategies for producing holistic learning include the use of (a) modalities of learning; (b) learning and teaching styles (Dunn & Dunn, 1979; McCarthy, 1980; Samples & Hammond, 1985); (c) dialectics, dissonance, or discrepancy (Brehm & Cohen, 1962; Festinger, 1957, 1964; Inhelder & Piaget, 1958; Wright, 1981); and (d) questioning strategies (Bloom, 1956; Blosser, 1973), especially wait-time (Gooding, Swift, & Swift, 1985; Rowe, 1969; Swift, Swift, & Gooding, 1984; Tobin, 1985). Generic thinking processes or tools consist of the process skills (e.g., observing, inferring, classifying, sequencing, designing experiments, collecting data, interpreting graphs, controlling variables, hypothesizing, predicting, analyzing, drawing conclusions, and communicating the results) and thinking tools such as PMI, C & S, and CAF (de Bono, 1973). Included in the strategies for teaching critical thinking and problem solving processes are the following: (a) the Learning Cycle (Atkin & Karplus, 1962; SCIS, 1974); (b) the learning hierarchy (Gagne, 1985); (c) Structure-of-the-Intellect (Guilford, 1967); (d) creative process and thinking (Bruner, 1962; Torrance, 1979) (e) analytical or higher-order reasoning (Whimbey, 1977, 1984; Whimbey & Lockhead), 1980); lateral and vertical thinking (de Bono, 1970); creative process (Eberle & Stanish, 1985; Isaksen & Parnes, 1985; Osborn, 1963; Parnes, Noller, & Biondi, 1977; Selye, 1964; Stanish & Eberle, 1984; Wallas, 1926;); sensitivity, synergy, and serendipity (Parnes et al., 1977); the conceptual framework (Marzano & Hutchins, 1985. Considered also in the development of the Bitner Model were logical reasoning processes (i.e., controlling variables, correlational reasoning, combinatorial logic, probabilistic reasoning, and proportional reasoning). Furthermore, the model was developed to be used in either "well-structured" or "ill-structured" problem situations (Sternberg, 1984, p. 196).

In addition, the model rests heavily on the philosophical and psychological inclinations and perceptions of the grant consultant. She (Bitner, 1986) defined critical thinking as an eclectic style of thinking in which one integrates or combines the different kinds of thinking (e.g., creative and logical thinking). She supports both McPeak's (1981) stance that thinking skills are subject-dependent and de Bono's (1983) position that thinking skills are generic. She advised that to think critically one must practice sensitivity, synergy, and serendipity (Parnes et al., 1977). Furthermore, Bitner advocates analysis, synthesis, and evaluation as essential critical thought processes. She, also, recognizes the need for both quantity and quality of data. The critical thinker should attempt to be exhaustive in the collection of data or evidence. As the individual uses critical thinking processes, he should collect data or scrutinize the provided data. During the utilization of analytic, synthetic, and evaluative processes, the critical thinker makes judgments which should lead to quality of data. Finally, she advises that verification and communication of one's findings is necessary if the findings are to have relevancy beyond the critical thinker himself.

Project Goals

The project goals are both short-term and long-term. The three short-term goals are as follows: (a) Train every teacher and administrator in Deer Consolidated School District K-12 in critical thinking skills and instructional strategies for implementing the critical thinking skills in the classroom. (b) Train and teach K-12 students in the Deer Consolidated School District to use critical thinking skills in their academic pursuits and in their real life experiences. (c) Train a group of core teachers as facilitators for other teachers and administrators in the twenty-two school districts. The long-term goals are as follows: (a) Train the teachers and administrators as facilitators in the twenty-two school districts in critical skills and (b) Nurture the short-term goals.

In-service Workshops

First Year of Grant Period (1986-1987)

The consultant for the grant conducted a workshop for the entire faculty and administrative staff of Deer Consolidated School District and interested parents, aides, and administrators of OUR Cooperative during the week of August 11-15, 1986. The foci of the this workshop were (a) an explication of the theoretical base of the model with illustrative examples of the application of the theory, (b) a description of the project goals and evaluation processes, (c) the administration of instruments of commitment to the workshop participants, (d) instruction in the use of the Bitner Model, (e) practice in the use of the Bitner Model, and (f) evaluation of the workshop. The workshop sessions were videotaped.

Throughout the 1986-1987 school term, teachers at Deer Consolidated School District on a voluntary basis implemented the Bitner Model. Upon request, the Advanced Photography Club videotaped teachers using the Bitner Model. The consultant viewed the tapes and provided feedback to the teachers. In addition, the consultant stayed in close contact with the core teachers via telephone.

During the fall of 1986, the consultant presented to the Deer faculty and administrative staff the results of the Group Assessment of Logical Thinking (GALT) (Roadrangka, Yeany, & Padilla, 1983) which was administered to students in Grades 6-12 and explained the implications of the test results. In the spring, Bitner (1987) presented a complete analysis of the results on the GALT for students in Grades 7-12 at the annual meeting of the National Association of Research in Science Teaching.

In December, the core teachers met with the consultant to evaluate the progress of the grant and to determine the future direction of the grant. Based on this formative evaluation, the core teachers and consultant formulated their approach for the 1987-1988 school term. At this meeting, it was decided that the core teachers should assume more responsibility in the delivery of the model to the teachers and administrators in the twenty-two school districts. This proposal was presented to the Winthrop Rockefeller Foundation for their approval.

Three instruments measuring logical, higher cognitive processes, and critical thinking were administered to students in Grades 6-12. The GALT was administered to students in Grades 6-12. The Ross Test of Higher Cognitive Process (Ross & Ross, 1976) was administered to students in Grades 6-8, whereas the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (Watson & Glaser, 1980) was administered to the students in Grades 9-12.

Second Year of the Grant (1987-1988)

Based on their interest in critical thinking, their commitment to the Bitner Model, and their natural leadership abilities, five core teachers surfaced. All five Deer teachers are master teachers with teaching experience ranging between eleven and twenty years. Their educational expertise lies in the humanities with strong background in social studies, Latin, English, and journalism; in gifted and talented education, K-12; in special education, K-12; in counseling, K-12; and in physical education.

The five core teachers conducted a workshop for the faculty and administrative staff of Deer Consolidated School District during the week of August 17-21, 1987. The broad categories of the workshop were (a) a review of the Bitner Model, (b) Metra as taught using critical thinking skills, (c) the humanities using critical thinking skills, and (d) mathematics and science using critical and logical thought processes.

In the review of the Bitner Model, it was emphasized that the model can be used in increments rather than in its totality. Also, stressed was the need to teach students to think critically rather than just memorize information.

The two core teachers in the humanities presented the following sessions: (a) classroom management using critical questioning and critical thinking, (b) the Balloon Theory, (c) SQ3R and critical thinking, (d) scanning and critical thinking, (e) roles and actors in the world, (f) whole brain thinking and the 4-MAT System Model, (g) the Lotas Teaching Preference Questionnaire, and (i) noun, verbs, and adjectives and the critical thought process. They illustrated how the model or aspects of the model can be used in the instructional process and the role of thinking and learning styles in the instructional and learning process.

The focus of the workshop sessions for elementary teachers was the use of critical thinking in the Metra reading system. Specifically, the elementary core teacher presented the following sessions: (a) Question-Answer Relationships (QAR), (b) webbing, (c) writing questions at the higher levels of Bloom's Taxonomy, and (d) spelling and vocabulary development.

The focus of the two core teachers in mathematics and science was that basic skills can be best thought through the use of critical thinking skills. Their sessions centered on the following topics: (a) the use of critical thinking skills in meeting the state basic skills objectives, (b) the Sandwich Model, (c) the decision-making model, (c) the scientific method, and (d) logic as a tool for critical thinking. In all cases, they illustrated how the shorter models could plug into the Bitner Model.

Another integral component of the workshop was the sessions allocated to developing model lessons for the teachers' individual classrooms. These sessions allowed the teachers to tailor the presented approaches to their individual instructional styles.

Other activities for the 1987-1988 grant period include the following: (a) administration of the GALT to students in Grades 6-12 in Deer Consolidated School District and two other school districts in OUR Cooperative, as comparison groups, in September, (b) compilation of the MAT-6 scores for students in the twenty-two school districts, (c) dissemination of the videotapes using the Bitner Model or aspects of it to teachers in the twenty-two school districts in May, (d) administration of the Ross Test of Higher Cognitive Processes to students in Grades 6-8 in the three school districts and the Watson-Glaser Critical Appraisal to students in Grades 9-12 in the three school districts, (e) videotaping of teachers using the model, (f) three follow-up workshop sessions, (g) the teaching of generic thinking processes per grade level as recommended by the consultant, and (h) continued communication with and support from the grant consultant.

Third Year of the Grant (1988-1989)

The five core teachers with support and advisement of the grant consultant will conduct in-service workshops on the critical thinking skills model for the other school districts in OUR Cooperative. The goal is to train all teachers and administrators in OUR Cooperative during the 1988-1989 grant period. From these newly trained teachers and administrators, additional core teachers/administrators will be identified who in turn will assume the role of training other teachers and administrators in the use of critical thinking skills.

Bitner Model

I. The Focus

   A. Critical thinking skills with definite approaches, academic, and/or [often called "well-structured" (Sternberg, 1984, p. 196), e.g., physics, chemistry problems, etc.]

   B. Real life problems without definite approaches or definite solutions because of their contextual dependency [often called "ill-structured" (Sternberg, 1984, p. 196)]

II. The Process: It is an integration of a variety of thinking tools and processes and different categories of thinking. Throughout the process, one is encouraged to use the higher-order thinking skills and inductive and deductive logic. Beneath each of the twelve steps, there are recommended approaches or skills for completing the particular step. It should be understood that one could actually concentrate on any of the steps individually without completing the whole model.

   A. **Step 1: Find a problem.** (At this stage, the individual will be given very little information. The individual will be encouraged to invent problems or discern a problem from the given information. The person will ask questions. Also, at this stage, the individual may conclude that definition of terms and additional information are needed.)

      1. Suggestions:
         a. Put students in a situation which creates dissonance, disequilibrium, or discrepancy (Piaget, Wright, etc.).

        b. Be sensitive to the situation under investigation (Parnes et al.)
        c. Use the modalities of learning to observe the situation (McCarthy).
        d. Think in words as well as images (Marzano et al.)
        e. Determine the parameters of the situation.

    2. Checks (Cagle):

        a. Evaluate the problem.
            (1) Do I really have a problem?
            (2) What kind of a problem do I have? ("well-structured" or ill-structured")
        b. Verify the problem.
            (1) If you have a problem, proceed.
            (2) If not, return to Step 1.

B. **Step 2: Define the problem.** (Use convergent and divergent thinking.)

    1. Suggestions:
        a. Determine the ownership of the problem. (Ask who, what, when, where, how, and why?
        b. Analyze the problem; determine its possible components. (Use the generic tools/ processes recommended by Chuska.)
        c. Define the problem completely, intently, and clearly (Wallas).
    2. Checks (Cagle):
        a. Evaluate the definition of the problem.
            (1) Is it an accurate definition of the problem?
            (2) Is it free from bias?
            (3) Do I want (its value-personal and societal) to solve it?
            (4) Do I have the resources to solve it? (money, time, and ability)
        b. Verify the definition of the problem.
            (1) If positive responses to questions in Step 2, proceed.
            (2) If negative responses, re-evaluate definition.

C. **Step 3: Brainstorm to come up with possible solution approaches to the identified problem.**

    1. Suggestions:
        a. Use divergent and convergent thinking.
        b. Refer to CPS brainstorming process

SCAMPER. (SUBSTITUTE; COMBINE; ADAPT; MODIFY, MAGNIFY, AND MINIFY; PUT TO OTHER USES; ELIMINATE; AND REVERSE)
    - c. Use Edward de Bono's PMI (Plus, Minus, and Interesting) and CAF (Consider All Factors)
- 2. Checks:
    - a. Evaluate the list of solution approaches.
        - (1) Have all possibilities been considered?
        - (2) Have I then weeded out the non-essentials?
    - b. Verify solution approaches.
        - (1) If you judged that all possibilities have been weeded out, proceed.
        - (2) If not satisfied with the brainstorming process, consider ways to improve it or return to Step 1 or 2.

D. **Step 4: Determine the short and long term consequences of each solution in context.**

- 1. Suggestions:
    - a. Use de Bono's C & S.
    - b. Classify them; put them in a priority order, etc.; task analyze each (Gagne, Greeno, etc.)
    - c. Consider resources (monetary, time, and ability) needed to solve the problem and value of the solution.

E. **Step 5: Incubate.**

- 1. Checks:
    - a. Evaluate short and long-term consequences of each solution.
        - (1) Use the generic tools/process.
        - (2) Perhaps re-order them.
    - b. Verify the solution approach(es).

F. **Step 6: Select the solution approach.**

- 1. Suggestions:
    - a. Is it the best solution approach? (Use CAF.)
    - b. Devise a time-line for the solution approach.
    - c. Devise a detailed plan.
    - d. Devise an evaluation plan.
- 2. Checks:
    - a. Evaluate the time-line for the solution approach.
        - (1) Do I have the resources?

        (2) Is this time frame realistic?
        (3) Is the plan complete?
        N.B.: Control is essential if you really want to find out if you found the solution to the problem.
    b. Verify the solution approach.

G. **Step 7: Formulate the hypothesis or hypotheses to test the solution approach.**

H. **Step 8: Implement the solution-solving approach (i.e., test the hypothesis or hypotheses).***

1. Suggestions:
    a. Follow the plan and time-line.
    b. Control if a scientific experiment.
    c. Keep accurate records. Record data accurately.

I. **Step 9: Evaluate the solution-solving approach.**

1. Did you solve the problems?
2. What are the results?
3. Can the approach be replicated?

J. **Step 10: Verify the results.**

1. If you did not solve the problem, consider modification of the solution approach.
2. If the problem is solved, proceed.

K. **Step 11: Communicate the results by explicating the process** (Torrance). This is an important step for personal and societal relevance (Bruner).

1. Use tables, graphs, etc., in the reporting.
2. Be precise and concise.

L. **Step 12: If not satisfied with the results, analyze why. Return to the appropriate step.**

* This is the point at which I believe discipline plays a vital role. For example, in history one would use such things as (a) primary or secondary source and (b) internal and external criticism. No matter what subject-area, reliability and validity are essential. Someone else ought to be able to replicate the process.

Example of How the Approach Can Be Abbreviated

1. State and define the problem.

2. Search for solution approaches.
3. Select and test solution approach.
4. Verify the results or conclusions.

The Role of the Administrators, Teachers, School Board Members, Students, and Parents

The funding of the grant is predicated on the commitment of administrators, teachers, students, school board members, and parents; therefore, all parties have been informed through such avenues as news releases, minutes of board meetings, and personal and public announcements of the workshop schedules and have been encouraged to participate in the workshop sessions. With the support of the administrative staff, school board, and parents, the teachers are charged with the implementation of the model into the instructional process.

Evaluation Techniques

The evaluation techniques are both formative and summative in nature. The formative evaluation procedures consist of (a) evidence of commitment from the teachers, school board, parents, Winthrop Rockefeller Foundation, and consultant; (b) institutional structure support; (c) participants' roles as support, monitoring, implementing, and evaluating; and (d) evidence that the model is in place. The summative evaluation techniques consist of (a) teachers' use of the learning modalities; (b) teachers' use of questioning strategies, especially higher-order questions and wait-time; (c) students' results on paper and pencil tests (i.e., GALT, Watson-Glaser Critical Appraisal, and Ross Test of Higher Cognitive Processes); (d) teachers' use of thinking skills; (e) students' use of the Bitner Model; and (f) teachers' use of the Bitner Model.

Description of the Videotaped Examples of the Model

Three illustrative examples of the practical application of the critical thinking model will be presented via videotape. The examples will include (a) brief segments of the August 1987 workshop, (c) use of the model in a humanities classroom, and (d) use of the model in a primary classroom.

References

A complete reference list will be included in the paper for dissemination at the conference.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

WEDNESDAY, OCTOBER 14, 1987

4:10 - 4:40 PM

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THE FEASIBILITY OF YEAR-ROUND EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Purpose

The purposes of this paper, and proposed presentation, are two-fold. The first purpose is to present the results of an investigation into the potential impact of implementing year-round education programs in rural communities. The second purpose is to describe the concerns that have surfaced and decisions that have to be made, by one rural school district considering a year-round schedule, as a practical example of the details that must be taken into account and weighed when investigating the implementation of year-round education programs.

Objectives

The objectives of this presentation are:

1. To report on research conducted to investigate the pros and cons of implementing year-round education programs in rural communities. (The research is based on the literature available on this topic, and interviews with small and rural school districts in California that have gone to the year-round schedule.)

2. To provide guidelines (and a "worksheet") for determining if a rural school can or should implement year-round programs.

3. To disseminate an example of the use of the guidelines mentioned in 2 above, in one school district.

4. To provide rural school districts with a clear understanding of the general implications of year-round programs and a specific example of how those implications were determined at an actual site to assist them in making the determination for their own sites.

Practical Implications

This paper, and proposed presentation, will provide rural school districts with a comprehensive list of those practical management, personnel, public relations, and financial issues that must be considered before altering a current academic calendar. The practical details of one school district that is considering year-round education programs illustrate how the "consideration list" can be used to make the determination of whether or not to make the academic calendar change.

This paper and presentation is the result of collaborative effort of a school district and university.

Jim Donmoyer
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Design for Effective Schools:

A Small School's Approach

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Foreword

Alva Elementary School is located in east Lee County about 15 miles from Ft. Myers, Florida. The town of Alva was one of the first settlements in Southwest Florida, providing the area with its first churches, library and schools. As Lee County has matured into one of the fastest growing counties in the nation, Alva has remained a small close-knit community with agriculture as its prime industry.

The Lee County School District is, of course, a rapidly-growing, progressive system with 5 high schools, 11 middle schools and 28 elementary schools. Two new high schools will open in Fall of 1987 and two new elementary schools will debut in Fall of 1988.

So, what makes me think that Alva Elementary is special enough to merit a presentation at the Rural and Small Schools Conference? Truthfully, I have mixed emotions about "tooting my own horn." But, this school has come so far in the past few years. Teachers and children appear happy. Student achievement is at an all time high. Parents openly express their support of our school and the community once again looks at Alva Elementary as a source of pride. Being a small, rural school, recognition is often hard to come by. Hopefully, this presentation will give my staff the credit they deserve for all their dedication and hard work.

Alva Elementary School

Statistical Data:

Enrollment	370
Full-time staff	28
Part-time staff	13

Minority enrollment - 16%

Free and reduced lunches (1986-87) - 45%

Students not living with both natural parents (1985-86) - 44%

Average daily attendance (1986-87) - 94.55%

Introduction

When I was appointed principal three years ago, I felt I was definitely ready for that big step. After five years as an assistant principal, supporting the philosophies of my boss, my "back burners" were full of ideas that I would employ in "my school". Yes, my mind would race from one exciting project to another, envisioning Alva Elementary as the type of school that parents are proud of; teachers love to work in and most of all a place that children want to come to each day.

With all of these ideas running amuck in my head, I was in need of some sort of structure or mechanism to put them in place. This is when Design for Effective Schools became invaluable to me. This document, which is a synthesis of the effective schools research, identifies the influencing conditions found to be present in schools exhibiting significant gains in student achievement. A group of educational practitioners in Lee County identified the eight characteristics which appear to be the most prevalent in the research literature.

Schools in the Lee County System are fortunate. We are undergirded with strong support from the district office in terms of curriculum and instruction. This support ensures that students at Alva Elementary, on the fringe of the district, have access to the same up-to-date textbooks and materials as students in the center of town. Still, this does not guarantee that all schools will be identical. I was skeptical when the Design for Effective Schools was first presented to me. I viewed it as an attempt to make all of the Lee County schools the same.

After working within the design for a few years now, I have grown appreciative of the structure it gives me as a principal, yet allowing me the freedom to employ my ideas and have Alva Elementary reflect my personality and educational philosophies. This process lets a principal know what is expected of him and helps the district maintain a clear focus as to annual and long-range goals and objectives.

In the next several pages, I will identify each of the eight characteristics and specific indicators culled from the effective schools research. Following each descriptor, I will detail activities taking place at Alva Elementary which correlate to that specific characteristic. Where applicable, I will provide data to verify the relative success of these activities.

I. Clear and Focused School Mission

There is a clearly stated academic mission which is articulated throughout the school. The staff shares an understanding and a commitment to the procedures, and accountability of this mission.

Indicators:

1. A written statement of the school's beliefs and goals was (a) cooperatively developed by the faculty with input from the community and (b) is consistent with the district mission statement.

2. The school focus is on increased student achievement and accomplishment.

3. The stated goals are used in planning the school's educational objectives and activities.

4. The mission of the school has been clearly communicated to the staff, students, and parents/guardians.

5. The staff can articulate the district mission and the school mission goals.

6. The statement is reviewed and, if appropriate, revised, annually.

7. The principal inspires the students and staff to accomplish the school's mission by evidencing most of the following:

    a. a sense of humor
    b. self-confidence
    c. enthusiasm
    d. optimism
    e. initiative
    f. respect for others
    g. consideration for the feelings of others
    h. recognition and appreciation of the accomplishments of others
    i. a high energy quotient
    j. innovativeness

The "School Mission Document", which was formulated cooperatively by the faculty with input from parents states, in a nutshell, what our main focus at Alva Elementary will be. Parents receive a copy of this statement at the beginning of each year. The mission is reviewed and, if necessary, revised by the staff annually.

Alva Elementary School Mission Document

Alva Elementary School is committed to increasing student learning and to creating a seriousness of purpose on the part of students and staff. Maintaining a strong academic focus as our top priority, we will continue emphasizing high expectations for student achievement, monitoring of student progress and building a sense of responsibility in each student.

We intend to create and maintain a facility that is intellectually stimulating for each student, a facility which is safe, clean and aesthetically pleasing. We further intend to expand the experiential background of each child, increase parent education and build community support. Each student at Alva Elementary is important and each will have equal opportunity to reach their fullest academic potential.

Student achievement at Alva Elementary is at an all-time high. Florida Student Statewide Assessment Tests (FSSAT) and California Achievement Test (CAT) results reflect the increased emphasis on learning. Various activities are used to motivate students and enhance the quality of academic learning time. Activities include:

(1) student work always on display
(2) math facts mastery ribbons
(3) honor roll (quarterly and yearly)
(4) students of the week
(5) science fair
(6) young authors' conference
(7) computer enrichment groups
(8) peer tutoring
(9) read aloud activities
(10) positive reinforcement for increased or improved achievement

The principal at Alva is actively involved in "breathing life" into the mission statement. This document typifies the ideals and ideas upon which many decisions are made, thus becoming the foundation for our school.

II. Safe and Orderly Environment

The environment within the school must be conducive to teaching and learning. It is orderly without being rigid, and quiet without being oppressive. Safety for all is a primary concern.

Indicators:

1. The school climate reflects an atmosphere of respect, trust, high morale, cohesiveness and caring.

2. There is a student handbook that clearly states expectations for student behavior.

3. A variety of classroom management skills are used to create a businesslike, orderly, and comfortable classroom environment, conductive to learning.

4. Discipline within the school is enforced in a fair and consistent manner.

5. Parents are informed of disciplinary action as it refers to their child.

6. Positive reinforcement of expected behavior is observable throughout the school.

7. Student work is attractively displayed throughout the school.

8. The physical plant is:

   a. clean
   b. aesthetically pleasing
   c. safe
   d. well-maintained

9. There is an annual assessment of the school improvement needs, the needs are prioritized, and the principal is resourceful in getting the tasks accomplished.

10. The principal is involved in prioritizing county-wide maintenance requests.

The climate at Alva Elementary definitely reflects an atmosphere of respect, trust, high morale, cohesiveness and caring. Teachers and all staff members are involved in maintaining this climate. Positive reinforcement; close communication between staff and parents; positive rapport between the administration, staff and students all contribute to the happy atmosphere at Alva.

Expectations for student behavior are clear. Each teacher actively monitors an assertive discipline program, outlining these expectations, rewards and consequences. Children are closely supervised in all areas of the school.

An aging physical plant is clean and well-maintained by our custodial staff. The interior of the school is enhanced by teacher-made bulletin boards and displays of student work. The exterior has been beautified with new landscaping and playground equipment.

Resourceful is an appropriate word to describe the activities the administration has engaged in to upgrade the landscaping and play areas. The district matching funds landscaping program has been utilized to the maximum. P.T.O. funds and private donations have served as the foundation for our beautification program.

Parents feel that Alva Elementary is a good place for children. They take pride in our school and care for it accordingly. The following data, taken from our recent parent survey, supports the belief that we do have a "safe and orderly environment":

		Positive	Negative	No Opinion
(5)	Discipline in this school is administered in a fair and consistent manner.	87%	5%	8%
(17)	The school facility is clean and attractive.	94%	3%	3%
(20)	My child has a positive attitude toward school.	93%	7%	0%

III. Instructional Leadership

The principal acts as the instructional leader and understands and applies the characteristics of instructional effectiveness in the management of the instructional program.

Indicators:

1. The principal sets high and realistic standards for performance and lets the staff, students, and parents know what these standards are.

2. The principal spends time in the instructional classroom setting often.

3. The principal knows and helps teachers implement the curriculum.

4. The principal actively pursues a program of professional development for himself and his staff on a yearly basis.

5. The principal completes fair and meaningful evaluations of each employee, citing examples of quality instructional procedures observed and areas for professional growth.

6. The principal employs techniques (based on the school mission) to promote efficient:

    a. deployment of students, staff, and volunteers
    b. use of materials and equipment
    c. operation of plant and facilities
    d. scheduling of time

7. The principal encourages the staff to participate in leadership roles and involves them in decision making.

8. The principal resolves conflict fairly and consistently.

9. The principal establishes school procedures in written form.

10. The principal has a clear understanding of the district fiscal procedures and determines, with staff involvement, the expenditure of funds available to accomplish the school's mission.

11. The principal knows what the community expects of the school and actively seeks parental involvement in their students' education.

Instructional leader! I am the instructional leader at Alva Elementary School. I am very focused as to my purpose and devote my energies, fiscal resources and time to ensuring quality instructional procedures that result in enhanced student learning.

At times it becomes difficult to maintain that focus. Paperwork, meetings and apathy can sometimes stagnate one's growth as an instructional leader. Visibility in classrooms, daily, has become a top priority for me. As a result of this emphasis, I have become a better office manager and do not "hesitate to delegate". Daily contact with the staff and students; learning all of the children's names and monitoring their academic growth are top priorities.

Open communication with staff and parents actively involves them in the decision-making process. Teachers and parents are very receptive to my ideas and can freely express their points of view.

IV. High Expectations

The school exhibits a climate of expectations in which the staff believes and demonstrates that all students can attain mastery of basic skills and the staff has the capability to help all students attain mastery in this mission.

Indicators:

1. School personnel believe that all children can learn.
2. Students and staff expect to be successful academically, personally, and socially.
3. The school has clearly stated written goals for students that reflect high expectations for progress by all students in the school.
4. Teachers, through various teaching techniques, meet the individual needs of students to ensure mastery of the basic skills and the content areas.
5. Each teacher expects students to complete classwork and homework with a high rate of success and provides appropriate levels of lessons to ensure that high level of success.
6. The school provides public awards and incentives at every level of instruction for both students and staff.
7. The school provides opportunities for students to demonstrate responsibility.

"High Expectations" at Alva Elementary has yielded almost unbelievable results. Once a school that was politely excused from true accountability because of the population we serve, we now compare favorably with other schools in the district in regard to achievement and assessment test results. Not only have we improved academically, but student behavior has improved dramatically in the past few years. High expectations followed up with a firm but fair approach to academics and descipline has created this new scenario.

Are the students aware of the expectations of the staff? Please note the responses of our 4th and 5th graders to the following items on our 1986-87 student survey:

	Yes	No
(13) My teachers give me homework and expect it to be turned in.	100%	0

V. Opportunity to Learn

Students are provided maximum opportunity to learn during the school day.

Indicators:

1. Attendance by students and staff is high.
2. The school's master schedule reflects the optimum amount of allocated academic learning time.
3. Placement of students is timely and appropriate.
4. Disruptions to allocated and engaged learning time are minimal.
5. During class time, students are successfully engaged in planned, meaningful learning activities.
6. Students have adequate opportunity to practice and master new skills.
7. Homework, where students achieve a high success rate, is assigned regularly.

The average daily attendance at Alva for the 1986-87 school year was 94.55%. Other than an end of year certificate for perfect attendance, we offer no incentives or gimmick to induce children to come to school.

Our master schedule does reflect the optimum amount of learning time. Each class has weekly art, music, and media classes with a specialized instructor. Physical Education is provided daily for students in grades 1 through 5. All academic areas are scheduled to ensure that enough time is being spent instructing in the basic and content areas.

Disruptions to allocated and engaged learning time are minimal. Announcements are made at the beginning and end of each school day. Assertive discipline is used to correct any misbehavior or disruptions in the classroom. Students exhibiting acceptable behavior and work habits are rewarded by attending the Principal's Party which is held every six weeks.

During class time, students are successfully engaged in planned, meaningful learning activities. Lessons are planned daily for specific areas. Children needing enrichment or having difficulty with a skill are given the opportunity to work with an aide or a parent volunteer. Specific lessons are provided for the preventative, developmental and enrichment student.

The staff at Alva encourages a "seriousness of purpose" on the part of our students. This means knowing why we're at school, providing lessons and activities that create interest and make the students want to seize the "opportunity to learn".

VI. Frequent Monitoring of Student Progress

The principal is actively engaged in monitoring the instructional program. Student academic progress is measured frequently. Multiple assessment methods and the results are used to improve individual student performance and the instructional program.

Indicators:

1. School records clearly document student performance and achievement.
2. Test data are used when placing students.
3. The principal carefully monitors student achievement.
4. Evaluation data are used to improve the school's program.

The Primary Specialist meets regularly with the principal, updating him as to the progress of all students in math and reading. Teachers are held accountable for reteaching and remediation of skills not mastered by students.

Students who are new to our school are carefully screened by the Primary Specialist and placed in classes accordingly. Teachers monitor the progress of all students referring individuals to the Child Study Team when progress is exceptionally high, slow or minimal. Psychological referrals are processed, when recommended by the Child Study Team, to determine the appropriate academic setting for each student.

Students in grades 3 and 5 participate in the "basic skills review" each fall. Emphasis is placed on skills that were listed as deficient on last year's Florida Student Statewide Assessment.

The principal reviews all report cards and interim reports prior to distribution, thus becoming aware of students who are demonstrating growth or experiencing difficulty. Individual counseling sessions are held for purposes of motivation and maintenance at work habits and study skills.

VII. Home/School Partnership

Parents understand and support the basic mission of the school and are given the opportunity to participate in helping the school achieve this mission.

Indicators:

1. The mission of the school has been communicated to parents.
2. There are active parent-teacher group(s), volunteer programs, and/or parent education programs.
3. Parents are invited and encouraged to participate in establishing school policies, priorities, and procedures.
4. There is regular communication with parents.
5. The school is available for community use.

This is the one characteristic that has required the most attention and careful nurturing. Three years ago there was no parent-teacher organization at Alva Elementary. Many parents were skeptical, but mostly uninformed.

Today, the mission of Alva Elementary is communicated to parents through school advisory board meetings, open houses, grade level expectation pamphlets, and the code of conduct statements.

Alva Elementary has an active P.T.O., a volunteer program which includes grandparents, and various parent education programs. This year the school had an open house in the fall and will be having a kindergarten orientation as well as two other parent education programs.

Parents are invited and encouraged to participate in establishing school policies, priorities, and procedures during school advisory board meetings, P.T.O., parent education programs, and parent-teacher conferences.

Communication with parents is provided in many different ways at Alva Elementary. For instance, teachers send home interim reports, report cards, calendars of events, and happy grams. Teachers also call individual parents on the telephone and hold conferences with parents to discuss student progress.

The community is welcome to use Alva Elementary to foster its growth and development. Many clubs and organizations use the school at the present time--including the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, and Little League. The annual Alva Reunion is held at the school with a program and exhibits provided by the students. The community is also invited to attend all special programs and grade level luncheons held at the school. This is conveyed by the calendars of events as well as by special invitation.

VIII. Effective Teaching

Effective teaching prevails throughout effective schools, Instruction is provided in ways which elicit higher levels of student learning. Classrooms, instructional areas and instructional resources are designed and arranged to promote student learning.

Indicators:

1. Teachers' plans for instruction incorporate what is to be learned or relearned, how it is to be taught and how learning will be assessed.
2. Teachers effectively manage student conduct.
3. Teachers systematically organize and develop instruction.
4. Teachers use effective strategies and techniques for presenting the subject matter to be learned.
5. Teachers exhibit effective communication practices in both verbal and nonverbal behaviors.
6. Teachers utilize systematic and appropriate methods for the evaluation of student achievement in relation to the objectives taught.
7. A planned curriculum, appropriate to the needs of the students being taught, is used as the basis for classroom planning, providing instruction and evaluating student learning.

Probably the most important consideration in the design of an effective school is what happens day in and day out in that classroom. The teacher-student relationship; classroom management and instructional techniques combine to create an effective classroom.

At Alva we emphasize direct instruction; we "feature the teacher". After reviewing models of instruction such as the Good and Grouws model for math, I can't help feeling that the teacher is our best source of knowledge and motivation for students. Learning centers, kits, cassettes and the lot are used in our school but they are not the primary instructional tool. As I mentioned in the introduction, teachers at Alva and in all of Lee County have a multitude of resources. Current textbooks, manipulatives, and updated curricula form the basis for instruction. Teachers know what is expected of them and have a clear focus as to the appropriate methods for instruction and evaluation of student progress. The administration at Alva monitors instructional techniques both casually and formally through observation and screening.

Summary

In closing, I would like to say that I am not the principal of "Utopia Elementary". We are not perfect by any means. In fact, we face a minimum of 370 new challenges each year.

I guess the biggest difference is that I now have a clear focus. Knowing where my school is and where the staff and community want it to be is very helpful. This focus makes doing some of the "difficult" or "dirty" tasks easier for me, since I can justify in my mind and heart the rationale or need for corrective action. When challenges arise, any member of our staff, knowing the basic philosophy and direction of the school, can make a decision or plot a course based on our mission.

Finally, the most satisfying outcome of this clear focus is that (1) children are learning, (2) parents are very proud of and express their satisfaction with Alva Elementary and, (3) children actually want to come to school everyday. It's funny, when I dreamed of being a principal, that's exactly how I envisioned my school.

Appendix 1.

ALVA ELEMENTARY
STUDENT OPINION SURVEY SUMMARY
LEE COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

May 1987
DATE

NUMBER SURVEYED: 121

Grade Level(s) Surveyed: 4th & 5th

ITEM	RESPONSE (PERCENT)	
	Positive	Negative
1. I am learning in school.	98%	2%
2. My principal is interested in me and the way I am learning.	90%	10%
3. My principal visits our classroom.	99%	1%
4. This school is a happy place.	80%	20%
5. Teachers and staff in this school care about me.	90%	10%
6. My teachers listen to what I have to say.	85%	15%
7. Our school has clear rules of behavior for students to follow.	94%	6%
8. The classrooms and hallways of my school are clean and neat.	91%	9%
9. I feel safe when I am in school.	88%	12%
10. The students in my school behave.	75%	25%
11. My parents are aware of how I am doing in school.	97%	3%
12. My teachers often praise or reward students for doing their school work.	80%	20%
13. My teachers give me homework and expect it to be turned in.	100%	0
14. My classwork is checked and returned to me.	93%	7%
15. My teachers expect me to do my best in my school work.	98%	2%

ALVA ELEMENTARY
PARENT OPINION SURVEY SUMMARY
LEE COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

March 1987
DATE

NUMBER SURVEYED: 141

ITEM	RESPONSE (PERCENT)		
	Positive (1 & 2)	Negative (3 & 4)	No (0) Opinion
1. This school provides a quality education for my child.	96%	4%	0
2. The leadership of the school is open to suggestions.	89%	6%	5%
3. The leadership of the school understands parent expectations for their child.	89%	4%	7%
4. Homework is assigned on a regular basis.	92%	5%	3%
5. Discipline in this school is administered in a fair and consistent manner.	87%	5%	8%
6. This school encourages learning.	97%	2%	1%
7. There is good communication between the school and home.	94%	5%	1%
8. My child's teachers are available to me for conferences.	98%	1%	1%
9. My child is being challenged in his or her subjects.	94%	4%	2%
10. Recognition is given to academic achievement.	95%	2%	3%

Appendix 2.

ALVA ELEMENTARY -
PARENT OPINION SURVEY SUMMARY
LEE COUNTY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
(continued)

March 1987
DATE

ITEM	RESPONSE (PERCENT)		
	Positive (1 & 2)	Negative (3 & 4)	No (0) Opinion
11. I am informed of my child's progress.	94%	5%	1%
12. Teachers at this school explain the subjects so that my child understands them.	89%	8%	3%
13. What this school teaches is appropriate for my child.	92%	5%	3%
14. I am pleased with my child's progress.	91%	8%	1%
15. The school is concerned about the education of my child.	96%	3%	1%
16. My child is challenged academically at school.	90%	6%	4%
17. The school facility is clean and attractive.	94%	3%	3%
18. I am informed when my child does well in school.	91%	6%	3%
19. I receive graded samples of my child's school work.	94%	5%	1%
20. My child has a positive attitude toward school.	93%	7%	0

Appendix 3.

Alva Elementary School
1986-87 Florida State Student Assessment Test
Criterion-referenced -- Composite Scores

Grade 3	Reading	Writing	Mathematics
District	97%	96%	94%
Alva Elementary	96%	98%	94%
State	96%	94%	91%

Grade 5	Reading	Writing	Mathematics
District	92%	94%	91%
Alva Elementary	96%	97%	92%
State	88%	91%	87%

Appendix 4.

ALVA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
CALIFORNIA ACHIEVEMENT TEST
FIFTH GRADE CLASS OF 1986-87
Grade Equivalent/National Percentile

FIVE YEAR TRACK

	TOTAL READING	TOTAL SPELLING	TOTAL LANGUAGE	TOTAL MATH	TOTAL BATTERY
GRADE 1 (1.6) 1982-83	1.7 49%	not tested	1.5 38%	1.8 55%	1.7 49%
GRADE 2 (2.6) 1983-84	2.7 48%	2.9 56%	2.8 54%	2.9 51%	2.7 50%
GRADE 3 (3.6) 1984-85	3.9 55%	4.0 55%	4.2 62%	3.7 48%	3.8 53%
GRADE 4 (4.6) 1985-86	5.1 59%	5.0 54%	6.2 67%	5.2 63%	5.3 63%
GRADE 5 (5.6) 1986-87	6.7 68%	8.5 70%	8.7 81%	6.9 74%	7.1 75%

CALIFORNIA ACHIEVEMENT TEST (C.A.T.)
8 Year Comparison - Grade Equivalent/Stanine

Grade 5 (5.6)

	Total Reading	Total Spelling	Total Language	Total Math	Total Battery
1979-80	5.5/5	4.7/4	5.5/5	5.5/5	5.4/5
1980-81	5.8/5	5.9/5	6.6/6	6.3/6	6.1/5
1981-82	6.2/5	5.9/5	6.7/6	6.2/5	6.2/5
1982-83	6.1/5	5.9/5	6.8/6	6.4/6	6.2/6
1983-84	6.3/6	6.0/5	7.6/6	6.4/6	6.4/6
1984-85	6.3/6	6.4/5	7.7/6	6.5/6	6.4/6
1985-86	6.0/5	6.5/6	7.6/6	6.5/6	6.4/6
1986-87	6.7/6	8.5/6	8.7/7	6.9/6	7.1/6

Reference

Lee County Public Schools (1985). Design for EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS in Lee County (pp. 1-46). Ft. Myers, Florida.

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Voicemail^R: A New Communications Technology for Families in Rural Areas

Wherever they may live, the parents of a child with a disability will tend to welcome counseling from a professional who is knowledgeable about their child's condition, and also from personal discussions with other parents. Rural parents, however, may find that regular contact with a really well informed and experienced professional is virtually impossible because of the distances involved. Discussions with another family having similar problems may be next to impossible for rural parents without considerable travel.

Of course, a responsible physician will not practice medicine over the telephone, and no clinician can perform her therapy without confronting the patient. There are many needs that can be met or at least alleviated, however, simply by speaking with an expert. The ideal situation would be to have an expert nearby who is especially trained and experienced in just the areas in which the parents have a concern at a given moment. Six months later, their concern may be another area and another specialist may be required.

Many parents of children with a disability, regardless of where they live, will feel isolated. Not having previous experience with hearing loss, vision problems, developmental disability, learning disability or mobility problems, they assume that they are the only ones in the neighborhood, or the whole county facing their type of problem. The ability to communicate their concerns with other parents, and to learn from them is imperative to their mental health and their need to support their child. Successful techniques for dealing with day-to-day problems at home can be passed along from one family to another without the participation of professionals. Parent to parent contact can be just as important as contact with professionals.

The Telephone Can be an Answer

I would suspect that virtually every family in the United States has fairly convenient access to a telephone. It is not a coincidence that Alexander Graham Bell was a teacher of speech to deaf children before he invented the telephone. Bell's invention is now in the homes of millions of Americans. This communication link can bring experts and other parents into contact with rural families with disabled members and it already exists! The question is the suitability of traditional telephone communication for this application and the cost.

For years we have had the conference call capability which enables three or more persons to hold a conference without being together in the same room. It has not been used outside of business settings primarily because of cost and the fact that everyone on the conference call must be on the line at exactly the same time. Crossing time zones complicates conference calls in a country as large as the United States. Conference calls tend to drag out unless there is a clear agenda and unless everyone respects the need to confine their remarks to that agenda. A personal discussion between two conference call participants while the others hang on means added expense and boredom for those not directly involved.

Voice Messaging is An Idea Whose Time has Come!

Computer and telephone technology have come together in the past few years to produce a new industry known as "voice messaging". the details of the combined technology are not nearly so important to us for this presentation today as is the potential for using voice messaging to bring informed counsel to parents of children with disabilities, and to provide a forum for these parents to share problems and solutions with other parents no matter where they may live.

One way to explain voice messaging is to compare it with electronic mail which has been around for a number of years. Briefly, electronic mail enables a person with a computer, a modem, and a telephone to send and receive typewritten messages with another person who also has a computer terminal, a modem, and a telephone. The modem is a device which enables a computer to send and receive written messages over an ordinary telephone rather than requiring leased lines.

With electronic mail one can send a written message to a friend, a business colleague, a customer or a supplier from any telephone. The message is typed on a personal computer and transmitted over normal telephone lines to a master computer. There it is stored in the recipient's "mailbox" until the recipient picks it up. Of course, the recipient must have a computer also.

The attractive features of electronic mail include:

* Messages are held in the master computer until the recipient finds it convenient to pick them up.

* Messages can be transmitted at any time of the day or night..the master computer never sleeps!

* Messages are sent quickly from sender to recipient without going through a secretary, clerk-typist, a mailroom or the U.S. Postal Service.

So what are the differences between electronic mail and voice messaging? And why do these differences make it feasible for families with children with disabilities living in rural areas to consider using this new technology when they haven't considered using electronic mail?

Voicemail^R, a patented version of voice messaging, offers the all of the desirable features of electronic mail except:

** Messages are spoken not written

** A computer and a modem are not required

** The only terminal equipment needed is an ordinary telephone

** Since messages are spoken rather than written, the prosodic features of speech, which often contain the essence of a communication, are included.

** Voicemail^R is cost effective since there is no investment in equipment by the sender or the receiver.

** Through the use of a "Group Box", a sender can dictate a message once and have it instantaneously placed in the personal boxes of two or 200 other subscribers.

** A subscriber recipient can respond to a message in his box simply by pressing one button on the telephone which automatically connects him to the mailbox of the sender..no need to dial the number.

A Typical Voicemail^R Application In a Rural Area

An outline of a proposed application of Voicemail^R to meet some of the needs of parents of children with disabilities was prepared in the early Spring of 1987. While not limited to rural families, it was felt that such families represented one of the primary potential beneficiaries of ROUNDABOUTS, the name given to the idea. The first group of programs for hearing impaired children to which this application was proposed did not respond enthusiastically. Perhaps it was because ROUNDABOUTS had a price tag of about $100 per family for a four week trial. Perhaps it was because the school administrators did not accept the need for such a service, feeling that they were adequately meeting the need with their own personnel and facilities. Perhaps they felt that they did not want to burden parents of young children with an additional expense for a new, and as yet untried, effort to help them adjust to the fact of a young child with a severe to profound hearing loss.

In any event, I propose to describe to you this afternoon the essence of the ROUNDABOUTS idea, the costs for a trial period in whatever disability area is your concern, and invite you to include the concept in your next grant proposal.

The ROUNDABOUTS Assumptions

1. The number of families will be ten.
2. Families will be selected from among those known to have children of the same approximate age who have a severe to profound hearing loss.
3. While it would be technically feasible to include families from anywhere in the 50 states, the pilot program will be limited to families within a single state.
4. The program will cover a four week period.
5. There will be one instructor/counselor who is well qualified in the subject areas, is an articulate speaker and who feels comfortable with a telephone.
6. The average number of phone calls per week for each family and the instructor/counselor will be 10.
7. The average length of each call will be three minutes.
8. There will be a total of 12 Voicemail^R boxes on the system
   10 for the families
   1 for the instructor/counselor
   1 Group Box

THE ROUNDABOUTS Procedure

The Program Manager, in consultation with staff personnel familiar with the most common needs of parents with very young hearing impaired children in the target area will develop a series of about 10 possible weekly topics. After discussion, the list of topics will be reduced to three with the first weekly topic being the nature of a general introduction.

Next, selection of families will take place. At the same time candidates for the position of instructor/counselor will be interviewed.

When the ten families are signed up and the instructor has been selected, the program will begin. The first weekly subject will be devoted to an introduction to Voicemail^R technology, introducing the instructor/counselor and the list of topics to be covered over the next four weeks. Parents may quiz the instructor/counselor about his introductory remarks by simply pressing the STAR button on their telephone at any time during his message and speaking their question into the phone. The instructor may respond directly to a single parent, or may repeat the question on the Group Box and share his answer with all ten families.

The first week then will be the time to iron out the inevitable questions on the use of Voicemail^{R}, expressing special concerns for the benefit of the instructor/counselor or for all of the other parents, and for generally getting acquainted with ROUNDABOUTS.

The next three weeks will follow a typical pattern. The instructor/counselor will deliver a five minute message each Friday evening. The family will have the entire weekend to listen to the instructor, discuss the topic among family members and respond, if they so desire. They can listen to the message as often as they like. They can have grandparents and friends listen also.

During the following week, the instructor/counselor, and any parents who are so inclined, can communicate with each other or with the whole group through the Group Box. They can ask questions, cite personal experiences relating to the weekly topic, seek advice on publications that might be appropriate, and invite comments on sources of help in their area.

Parents will be carrying out these communications from their own homes. While personal contacts with other parents may well result over a period of time, rural parents will not have to travel any farther than their kitchen phone to talk with other parents and with an outstanding expert. They can discuss the topic with family members, listen again and again to the instructor/counselor, and get back to anyone on the project with the results of their family discussion.

Compare this form of information dissemination gathering with the traditional method. Rural parents may have to drive for five hours to reach the clinic. They have a one hour appointment which may be at a time when both the clinician and the parents are tired, pressed for time, or just plain depressed for whatever reason. They have no opportunity to discuss things privately and get back to the clinician because their appointment is over. They will have little or no opportunity to seek the opinions of other family members and discuss them with the clinician because the other family members did not make the long trip to the clinic.

The Estimated Cost of ROUNDABOUTS

The cost of a demonstration project along the lines outlined above will be about $150.00 per family. This estimate includes the purchase of shared time on the master computer, a private Voicemail^{R} box for each family, and the use of a toll free line for the four weeks of the project.

It is important to point out that the above cost estimate does not include an honorarium for the instructor/counselor. Obviously it does not include any travel for the instructor/counselor either because he/she will not be traveling to a conference site. Instead, the expert will have the privilege of dictating messages, listening to parents' comments and answering them from the comfort of his/her own office or home at a time that is most convenient to their own schedule.

Rather than supporting airlines, oil companies and hotels so that speakers and listeners can come together to attend a small conference the ROUNDABOUTS organizers will be investing in highly personalized information dissemination directly to the intended recipients. The investment will be in the children and their parents rather than in the travel industry!

Summary

There is no easy way to avoid the educational, social and emotional problems which seem to accompany just about every family faced with a child who has a disability. Voicemail^R will not eliminate the need for face-to-face counseling, for medical care and for clinical attention. It does have the potential, however, to alleviate parental concerns, provide a forum for sharing concerns about their child and filling the gaps which result from living in areas remote from sources of personalized help. If ten families can gain access to an outstanding authority for four weeks on topics of current concern to them without leaving their living rooms and all for the total cost of $1,500, it sounds like a worthwhile investment!

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2276 words

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ABSTRACT

Support for Rural Teacher Recruitment from a Statewide Recruitment Center

The South Carolina Center for Teacher Recruitment is a state-supported initiative organized by a consortium of colleges, universities, education associations, public agencies and representatives from the Legislature and private business. The Center receives a state appropriation through South Carolina's 1984 Education Improvement Act funding apparatus to carry out programs that improve the quality and distribution of the teacher supply.

Among its specific missions, the Center works to improve the supply of teachers to rural and small school systems. In March 1987, the Center sponsored a three-day conference for rural school administrators designed to improve their recruitment practices. The Center provides a job-matching service for rural school systems and markets the state's teacher loan program which includes special forgiveness provisions for rural school teaching. In 1987-88, the Center plans to carry out targeted advertising in other states, designed to appeal to teachers with an interest in rural lifestyles.

The Center's Teacher Cadet program supports a year-long education course for academically successful high school juniors and seniors, who study the teaching profession and take part in tutoring and teaching activities. The course is taught by an outstanding high school teacher teamed with a college faculty member. The program is in its second year and the Center has developed a written curriculum to help export Teacher Cadets to rural high schools, where college partners are not readily available.

Other Center programs that support rural school systems include an annual direct mail campaign to selected high school students, an annual directory of all teacher education graduates in the state, a television advertising campaign, and a speakers bureau.

Presentation at the Second Annual National Rural and Small Schools Conference, October 13-17, 1987

EFFECTIVE RURAL TEACHER RECRUITMENT

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Overworked rural school administrators face special challenges as they search for the best teaching personnel available. With less time and fewer professional resources to work with, rural school people must compete in a teacher labor market where they are often at a disadvantage.

The cities and suburbs naturally draw larger numbers of well-qualified teachers to their school systems, as a result of the presence of large colleges and universities, the rapid in-migration of professional families, and higher local salary supplements.

Superintendents and principals in rural school systems frequently have to look further to fill positions in areas like special education, foreign language, math and science. Often they are forced to settle for teachers of mediocre or poor quality, for teachers with little experience, or for teachers unused to rural lifestyles who are likely to move on after a year or two.

In an effort to assist rural school districts in getting the most out of their recruitment efforts, the South Carolina Center for Teacher Recruitment sponsored a three-day conference in March 1987 with a rural teacher recruitment theme. National speakers and representatives of South Carolina school districts provided the expertise. Promising programs in districts like Georgetown, Colleton County, Timmonsville and Branchville were profiled.

A conference notebook filled with information and ideas about effective rural recruitment was provided to each participant, and a copy of the notebook was later shared with superintendents of other rural districts.

Prior to the conference, consultant Karen Sundstrom surveyed superintendents in 36 rural school districts to assess practices and problems which the conference might address. Half of the superintendents responded to the lengthy survey, which revealed among other things, that in many small districts, the superintendent is responsible for recruiting and hiring new teachers with a minimum of other assistance or community support.

Fewer than one-third of the districts taking part in the survey had a management plan for teacher recruitment. School administrators described situations in which they regularly struggle to fill teaching positions with qualified staff but lack the time and finances to go much beyond addressing their immediate needs.

District administrators generally rely upon traditional sources of information about potential teaching candidates, including applications on file, college placement offices, and contacts with neighboring superintendents. One superintendent described the latter strategy as a kind of poker or bartering game: "I'll trade you two high school English teacher prospects for one in guidance."

Some districts advertise in large urban newspapers, and a few advertise or use contacts in cities or colleges out of state -- but these are the exceptions rather than the rule. Some have budgets for recruitment materials and produce brochures or make trips to college career fairs (mostly in-state).

Most districts expressed a desire to do more, usually in the area of producing more sophisticated recruiting materials such as videotapes, but mentioned budget limitations as major obstacles.

Once teachers are located for interviews, the interview process most often focuses on certification status, academic credentials, past professional experience and teaching philosophy. Infrequently, candidates tour local schools or the local community.

A few administrators devote some of the interview process to "making a good fit" between a candidate and a rural community. Privately, some superintendents said they would like to be more selective, but the small number of qualified, appropriate candidates made it necessary to "take what we can get," without too much attention to the candidate's preparation for living and teaching in a rural Southern community.

Research by the Rand Corporation (Wise, 1987) and others strongly supports the theory that teacher retention can be improved through the use of well-structured orientation and first-year support programs. In rural districts, orientation should include exposure to the community as well as the school and the community exposure often can be carried out effectively by community volunteers.

Most districts in our survey said they offer some type of orientation. With very few exceptions, this process is conducted exclusively by school personnel (usually the principal) and focuses on district policies, a building tour, meeting other teachers, and occasionally on a tour of other schools in the district. Few districts operate a teacher-mentor system where veteran teachers are trained to act as support persons for new teachers.

Three districts described some type of community involvement in orientation for new teachers. Two districts invited local businesses to sponsor a luncheon for new staff; in the third district, local businesses provided information for a newcomers guide.

A large majority of the districts responding to the SCCTR survey wanted to involve community leaders in the effort to find and keep good teachers, but few had any formal structure for making this happen. Some administrators reported that community leaders considered the recruitment process to be the exclusive responsibility of the school district and were not helpful.

While the survey revealed that many school districts need to invest some of their valuable time developing more effective recruitment strategies, the survey did reveal a number of innovative practices and creative approaches to recruitment, including:

- In one rural community, the personnel administrator arranged for the local weekly newspaper to do a feature story on the severe need for affordable local housing for new teachers. In the story he appealed to residents with rental houses, apartments or rooms to notify him. He keeps a file in his office and uses it to assist new teachers.
- In another district, staff members approached a local motel owner in a rural community and asked the owners to provide 50 percent discounts for job candidates visiting the school district. The motel cooperated and other local businesses have begun to offer special arrangements for prospective teachers.
- Another personnel administrator works with local real estate agents to prepare several community residents who can take candidates or newly hired teachers on a community tour, stressing the positive aspects of their small town.
- A superintendent has developed a well-structured, intensive interview for candidates which explores the teacher's understanding of and attitude toward rural communities, as well as professional skills.

- A district staff member helped organize a community group to recruit minority candidates by planning outreach activities, raising funds for video equipment to use in college visits and providing housing for candidates in town for interviews.
- Another district established a minority recruitment council composed of retired educators and community members who accompany professional staff on college recruiting trips.
- One superintendent uses students from the community who are away in college to recruit on campus and invites new teachers to invite friends from college to come for interviews in the district.

Looking at short-term strategies to improve teacher recruitment in rural areas, we recommend a program that (a) casts a wide net, drawing applicants from across the state and from other states; (b) sells the community's strengths in well-conceived public relations materials; (c) screens candidates to determine their attitudes toward rural communities; (d) provides strong first-year support through adequate orientation and a teacher-mentor system; (e) involves the community in another orientation outside of school, which helps new teachers locate housing, obtain banking and similar services, and make in-roads into the community's social life (churches, clubs, etc.).

Many of the ideas we encountered in our search for good rural recruitment practices can be implemented at little or no cost to the district, provided administrators and school board members are willing to reach out to the community for some support. The Center is willing to assist districts in developing public relations materials that help sell the district. We also offer a free Teacher Job Bank service to teachers and district personnel administrators.

In the long term, rural school systems must move beyond the "hunter-gatherer" stage of teacher recruitment and make greater efforts to grow their own teachers at home. Programs like the SCCTR Teacher Cadet Program, the Education Department's Teaching Assistant Program, and well-designed teacher clubs and tutoring programs can help interest local youth in teaching careers.

The Cadet program, for example, has been successful in attracting students in the top quarter of their classes into teacher training programs. In a recent study by the University of South Carolina's Educational Policy Center, former Teacher Cadets who are now college freshmen were asked their career plans. More than 40 percent of those who responded said they planned to teach. Their average combined SAT score was 941, comparable to the average 944 SAT for freshmen engineering majors in South Carolina. (Among all freshmen with plans to major in education, the average SAT was 792 last year).

Research suggests that individuals who grow up in a rural community are much more likely to return to the community as teachers and to remain for long periods of time. While some students will reject their rural backgrounds or succumb to the lure of the city, many others will find their way home. And if they are teachers, they will find their way into rural classrooms.

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The Texoma Cooperative Teacher Center: Collaboration in Education

The Texoma Cooperative Teacher Center (TCTC) is a consortium consisting of Austin College and nine independent school districts in Grayson County, a predominantly rural area in North Texas. Two of the districts are located in towns of 25,000 to 35,000, while the remaining districts serve rural communities ranging from 500 to 2500 in population. Austin College is a private, liberal arts institution with 1150 students. The college offers a five year teacher education program.

The TCTC serves as a forum for sharing information and ideas, as a vehicle for collaboration in in-service and pre-service education, and as a sponsor of educational enrichment activities. The TCTC was chartered under provisions of Texas Senate Bill 8 in 1972 and served primarily as a communication and policy making vehicle for the placement of student teachers and interns. While it still serves that function, its activities have expanded over the years. Each school district and the college make an annual contribution to the TCTC's budget. Since 1982, local cooperative teacher centers in Texas have been able to apply for yearly grants for teacher training and improvement. Each center develops a grant proposal unique to the needs of its members. The TCTC has received a TEA grant each year since the program began. The amount of the grant is tied to the number of student teachers placed through the teacher center in the previous year. A member school district (one of the smallest ones, by the way) serves as fiscal agent for TCTC. The Policy Board of the TCTC is made up of public school teachers (at least 51%), public school administrators, representatives of local professional education organizations, and college education department faculty members. The shared resources of the school districts and the college plus the grants make possible mutually beneficial projects that would not otherwise be feasible, particularly for the smaller districts. Some examples of cooperative activities through the TCTC include the following:

1. Teachers in member districts may take graduate courses at Austin College for one-half normal tuition. In addition to regular courses, the college offers one-week intensive summer courses specially designed for in-service teachers. Among the various topics addressed in these courses have been advanced language arts curriculum and

instruction, microcomputer applications in the classroom, and effective teacher verbal behavior in the classroom. Teachers who do not wish to register for graduate credit may receive Advanced Academic Training credits toward career ladder advancement.

2. Austin College undergraduates work as teacher aides in the smaller districts during the January Term. Member districts accept eligible fifth year students as graduate interns. The members of TCTC cooperatively set policies for the placement of students in the schools. The Austin Teacher Program includes a series of undergraduate field experiences leading to a graduate year internship. The TCTC organizes in-service programs to train cooperating teachers and help them understand the purposes of the different levels of field experiences. The four week Austin College January Term has proved to be a beneficial opportunity for undergraduate students to gain full-time experience in public school classrooms. While the larger districts usually provide sites for fall and spring placements, the smaller, rural districts are heavily used in January. This provides the students with opportunities to work in rural schools. Evaluation of the January Term program shows that teachers and pupils enjoy having the college students assist them in their classrooms. Fifth-year graduate interns are placed throughout member districts on a supply and demand basis.

3. A Saturday seminar was held for outstanding high school students from TCTC schools on the positive aspects of careers in education. Nominated students and their sponsoring teachers were invited to the college campus for a luncheon to hear outstanding educators talk about aspects of teaching. Among the speaker/demonstrators were:

1) the recipient of the U.S. Presidential Award for Excellence in Mathematics Teaching,

2) the director of an innovative school for 3 through 9 year olds,

3) a middle school teacher whose slide presentation showed how history can be made exciting for students,

4) and a teacher and author who performed his one-man play about a day in the life of a teacher.

4. "The Celebration of Imagination" brought in a children's author to work in classrooms, then participate in a writing festival on the college campus with teachers,parents, and children from Grayson County. The author, who

is also an elementary school principal in Canada, held sessions for teachers while college faculty and teacher education students worked with parents and children. General sessions featured the author, sing-alongs, and a professional story teller.

5. The TCTC has purchased microcomputer software for grades K-12 as well as staff development video materials which may be shared among member districts and the college's teacher education program. Teachers may try software in the education department microcomputer lab and, if they wish, check it out for specified periods of time. This is an extension of a previously established policy that gives TCTC teachers access to materials in the Austin Teacher Program Materials Learning Center.

The Texoma Cooperative Teacher Center is an example of the benefits of creative collaboration among educational institutions in a predominantly rural setting.

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Project Rural Return: Phase I

One of the most crucial challenges that special education teacher training programs are facing today is the preparation of personnel to fill teaching positions in rural areas. The significance of rural special education service delivery is often underestimated because of the erroneous assumption that most of the United States school population resides in urban areas. In actuality, two-thirds of all schools in the country are located in rural settings (Sher, 1978) and the majority of unserved handicapped children reside in these areas. The lack of qualified personnel to teach exceptional students has largely been attributed to difficulties with recruiting and retaining staff. Rural personnel attrition rates have been so high as to have been described as "alarming" (McLaughlin, Smith-Davis, & Burke, 1986). It has been reported that attrition rates of 30 percent to 50 percent are the norm for rural special educators (Helge, 1983). In a national survey of rural special education problems identified by state education agencies, difficulty recruiting qualified staff and difficulty retaining qualified staff were the two problems which tied for first place; 94 percent of the state agencies indicated that these two factors were major obstacles to educating the handicapped in rural and remote areas (Helge, 1981).

Problems with staff recruitment and retention in rural areas are considered to be directly related to inadequacies in personnel preparation (Marrs, 1984). State education agencies have reported that university training programs have not prepared special education personnel to deal with the unique demands of service delivery in rural areas (Smith-Davis, Burke, & Noel, 1984). Helge's (1984) survey of 200 special education administrators from 200 rural school systems verified these training deficiencies. These survey respondents overwhelmingly reported (97 percent) that they had not been trained for work with rural handicapped students. Only 10 percent stated that they felt their preservice training was adequate for their work in rural communities. In view of her findings, Helge concluded that teacher training programs generally do not give consideration to special rural needs. In reviewing the problems involved in the shortage of rural special educators, Marrs (1984) likewise determined that a revision of university training curricula would increase the likelihood of greater personal and professional success which would help to alleviate the high attrition of these teachers.

Although the entire country is experiencing a special education teacher shortage for rural areas, the State of Louisiana has particular problems which are currently exacerbating the difficulty in training personnel for the handicapped population. Because of the decline in the oil industry, the economic situation is a grave one. Louisiana is currently leading the nation in unemployment. According to the United States Department of Labor statistics for June 1987, 11.2 percent of Louisiana's labor force is out of work. Universities and colleges have been forced to raise their tuition to offset financial problems. Additionally, the state's Professional Improvement Plan (PIP) which previously extended tuition waivers to teachers was completely cut in the Fall of 1985. Consequently, many teachers who were working on teacher education plans have been forced to discontinue their training because of financial problems. As Louisiana has an oil dependent economy and the forecast for the industry is pessimistic, it is assumed that teacher training efforts will continue to be adversely affected for some time to come.

Approximately 64 percent of Louisiana's residents live outside of urbanized areas of the state and almost half of these residents live in communities with a population less than 2,500. These rural areas are somewhat unique in several characteristics. Firstly, numerous ethnicities are represented by inhabitants; Yugoslavs, Hungarians, Creoles, Cajuns, Blacks, Vietnamese, and various other cultures are included in integrated and segregated rural communities. Louisiana is recognized to be a "melting pot" because the backgrounds of its residents are so diverse. However, in actuality most of these ethnic groups have not "melted" into the mainstream but rather have retained lifestyles consistent with their ethnic group. Secondly, the watery geography of Louisiana including the Mississippi River, the Gulf of Mexico, and a multitude of bayous has had considerable influence on living patterns of the state's inhabitants. These expanses of water have created numerous remote areas in which rural communities are separated from neighboring rural communities and families are distant to neighbors. In certain remote areas of the state, school boats are still used to bring children from the bayous to their schools. These bodies of water have also supported occupations which are dissimilar to the mainstream culture. Hunting, trapping, crabbing, and shrimping are examples of these economic endeavors. As these are seasonal occupations, they significantly affect school attendance because it is typical for all family members to participate in the work. And thirdly, religion is a very important characteristic of almost all communities in Louisiana. Its considerable significance is exemplified by the fact that public funds are used to provide services for parochial schools, e.g., transportation and special education. The separation of church and state in Louisiana has not been established with the clarity demonstrated in the rest of the country.

As a program in a regional state university located in a rural area of the state, Southeastern Louisiana University's Department of Special Education responded to unique local needs in developing a project which addressed (a) the recruitment and retention of rural special educators, (b) the modification of the university program to provide training in local community settings, and (c) the development of a pluralistic special education training curricula designed to meet the needs of the rural handicapped population in its service region. This project has been designated as Rural Return and is supported with United States Office of Education funds (#G008715010). As this project is in its first year of operation, all activities therein are referred to as Phase I components.

Project Design

The general design of Rural Return involves recruiting regular education teachers from their rural communities and training them to be special education teachers for either mild/moderate or severe/profound impairments. It is anticipated that once their training is completed, these teachers will fulfill special educator roles in their home communities. As an incentive for training, these teachers will be provided with a stipend which covers the cost of their Master's degree in special education. These trainees will also be offered a modified university training program which will make it feasible to complete a substantial portion of their coursework in their local community settings. Another important component of the project will be the revision of existing program competencies to more appropriately reflect a pluralistic training approach. This revision will include the development of three new courses which focus on meeting the needs of the handicapped in rural settings. The plan of operation will be explained in reference to recruitment and training program objectives.

Recruitment

Over the course of the three year program, 15 teacher trainees (five per year) will participate in the project.

Scheduled recruitment procedures included (a) developing project publicity brochures to be distributed to the school systems within the rural region served by the University, (b) informational on-site visits to each of the special education directors in these rural parishes by project personnel, and (c) trainee nominations put forth by the Advisory Council for Rural Special Education. During the planning stages of the project, it was anticipated that it might be rather difficult to find recruits for the program; however, such has not been proven to be the case. During the first three weeks of the project's implementation, over 16 teachers applied to participate in the program. This response was largely due to word of mouth publicity generated as a result of the project coordinator's visits to the special education directors. The final selection process involved using the following screening procedures to choose the most competitive trainees:

a. personal interview
b. three letters of recommendation
c. statement of professional goals
d. requisite GRE scores and grade point average for admission to the graduate program.

Given the fact that the initial recruitment was accomplished within such a brief period of time, it is anticipated that there will be more than a sufficient number of trainee applicants for the following years of the project. The ease with which recruitment was achieved during the initial phase of the project also suggests that there are many teachers in rural settings who are interested in becoming special educators provided that they are given assistance with their training.

Providing University Training in Local Rural Areas

Since project trainees reside in rural areas which are distant to the University, it was necessary to devise a plan that allowed a substantial portion of the training to take place closer to the local community setting. This objective will be accomplished via three major modifications of the current training program:

a. Nine hours of special education coursework will be delivered through the mail. They will be supplemented with texts and workbook materials. Project personnel will also make on-site visits to each trainee to evaluate progress. Project personnel are currently involved in selecting the first of these three courses. At this point, two courses have tentatively been determined to be suitable for this type of audio-visual presentation; they are Introduction to Special Education and Behavior Management.

b. Three hours of trainee selected independent study which will cover the content of one required course will be provided. This learning experience is perceived as self-directed, but performance will be monitored and evaluated by project personnel who will make on-site visits and hold telephone conferences with the trainees.

c. Nine hours of program content will be provided at an off-campus location that is more centralized to the trainees than is the campus. The particular location of Kentwood, Louisiana was chosen because it will reduce the travel time for trainees who reside in the furthermost targeted parishes.

The above modifications of the current training program will allow for trainees to complete 21 of the 36 required hours in their own community settings and/or at a location which is closer to their communities than is the campus of Southeastern Louisiana University. These modifications also provide for enhanced rural special education training because the content will be tailored to meet the unique needs of the handicapped that these trainees will serve.

Revision of Special Education Training Program

The revision of the special education graduate training program will encompass two major aspects: a) the modification of existing curricula to reflect a more pluralistic orientation to the education of the handicapped and b) the development of new coursework designed specifically to prepare special educators to teach in rural areas. In laying the groundwork for accomplishing these goals, two committees from the community were established: the Rural Special Education Advisory Council and the Trainee Task Force for Rural Special Education. Each director of special education in the University's service region was asked to appoint a representative to serve as a member of the Rural Special Education Advisory Council. This group has been scheduled to meet once each semester at the University to provide input on identifying rural special education training issues to be addressed in the program. The Trainee Task Force for Rural Special Education provides a similar function; however, this committee is comprised only of the project trainees and provides input from a student perspective.

At the current time, plans are being made for the first Rural Special Education Advisory Council meeting which will take place in October. Project personnel have developed syllabi, requirements, and competencies for three new proposed courses which focus on special education in rural settings. These new courses are Communication Disorders in Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Populations, Modifying Curriculum for Community Characteristics, and Coordinating Rural Community Agencies. It should be noted that these newly developed courses should be perceived as tentative offerings dependent upon input from the Rural Special Education Advisory Council and the Trainee Task Force for Rural Special Education. These committees are considered integral to the decision making process involved in determining appropriate subject matter and requirements for the new specialized coursework.

The faculty for the Department of Special Education will meet with project personnel and trainees to analyze the current special education program strengths and weaknesses from a pluralistic perspective. The format of this analysis will replicate that developed by Rodriguez (1982) for a University of Kansas multicultural special education project. This format includes the steps of a) compiling a list of issues and questions to be used in analyzing course texts and readings for pluralistic content, b) evaluating course syllabi for pluralistic content, c) analyzing practica facilities for rural opportunities, and d) developing a grid for evaluating strengths and weaknesses of all curricula to facilitate the interpretation of data. Changes to existing special education curricula will also be presented to the Rural Special Education Advisory Council for review.

Summary

Although Project Rural Return is only in the first months of Phase I, there are reasons to indicate that this may well be a successful training approach for alleviating the shortage of special education teachers in rural areas. Firstly, even though there was very little project publicity allowed for because of time constraints between the funding notification and implementation, there were more than three times as many trainee applications as there were positions available. (It should be noted that all of these candidates met the minimum qualifications.) It can tentatively be concluded that there is considerable interest among regular educators to make career changes to special education. Another fact which bears noting is that almost all of these applicants were born and reared in the communities in which they are presently teaching. Therefore, it seems highly likely that these trainees who were selected will continue to serve these rural communities in their new roles as special educators. Another reason to be optimistic about the long term effects of Rural Return has to do with the positive response it has received from special education administrators in the University's service region. The majority of these directors have demonstrated a sincere interest in serving on the Rural Special Education Advisory

Council and working in an active partnership with the University in its goal of providing better services to the handicapped in rural settings. It is anticipated that the keen interest displayed by the newly selected trainees, coupled with the enthusiasm of the special education administrators, will enhance the probability for successfully achieving Phase I goals of Project Rural Return.

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A.I.D.S.: TEACHING PERSONS WITH MENTAL RETARDATION HOW TO BETTER PROTECT THEMSELVES

The disease AIDS has caused considerable scare and real tragedy for thousands of people in our society. Statistics show that the disease will greatly increase to not only the so-called "target populations", but also into the community at large. To think that people with mental retardation are immune from catching this disease is both naive and dangerous in its logic and unfortunately in the resulting damage that could take place.

The Young Adult Institute, an agency that has served people with developmental disabilities/mental retardation for almost 30 years in the Metropolitan New York Area has begun to proactively address this problem by creating a training system for its clients. The Young Adult Institute's programs are located in the Metropolitan New York City Area which along with San Francisco has the highest concentration of AIDS victims in the U.S. Our clients often travel and interact with the general population. Of course, we strongly feel that our clients should be taught to live as independently as possible. There is a dignity to the risks all of us face in living in the so-called "real world".

Whoever, our clients are exposed to many different temptations in the New York City area which may lead them to become susceptible to the AIDS virus. We have created a training manual and videotape which will enable staff to better teach our clients about the dangers of AIDS.

This session will teach other agencies and professionals how to deal with the problem of AIDS in a dignified, and respectful manner with regard to people who are mentally retarded. We will discuss how we initially formulated a committee to discuss this problem, and how we dealt with the sensitivities of all concerned with regard to effectively teaching our clients. We will present our manual and also our videotape at the conference. This videotape explicitly teaches clients what sexual acts might endanger them, and how to engage in safer sex. We understand that our clients are sexual human beings and have a right to enjoyable sexual experiences as long as they are not endangering themselves or others.

In summary, the greatest impact on MR services regarding AIDS would be the tragedy of people who are mentally retarded contracting this disease. It is only through a strong educational program that really teaches how to engage in safer sex, and not dangerous sex, that our clients will truly be better protected. We feel that this presentation will be an excellent starting point for many agencies to first discuss the issue and to deal with it in a way that will truly benefit and better protect their clients.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1987

3:50 - 4:20 PM

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WHAT MAKES A DIFFERENCE IN THE SUCCESS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN RURAL SCHOOLS

Purpose

The purposes of this paper are three-fold. They are as follows:

1. To describe the several different strategies to professional development - provided by a state-supported staff development center that services nine counties in rural Northern California - for implementing content in the curriculum consistent with the state curriculum framework and textbook adoption cycles,
2. To report the results of the comprehensive evaluation of these professional development activities, and
3. To share the implications of the evaluation results and recommendations for future use in developing professional development activities in rural schools.

Summary

During the 1986-87 school year, the Teacher Education and Computer Center for Region 2 in Rural Northern California was in its second year of providing consultant services to

assist schools in assessing curriculum needs, planning for meeting these needs, and in implementing content into the curriculum consistent with the state curriculum frameworks and textbook adoption cycles. Science consultants and the science process were in their second year of implementation, mathematics consultants were in their first, and language arts consultants were recruited for their first year, next year.

An evaluation of all levels of activities was conducted that included points of view from all participants - Curriculum specialists, curriculum consultants, trainers, trainees, teachers and administrators. The results of the evaluation were quite revealing and helpful in assisting with planning for future professional development activities.

Practical Implications

This paper provides descriptions of a variety of activities provided for the implementation of indepth, sequential, curriculum-focused site-based professional development strategies that have been implemented, evaluated, perfected, and proven to be successful in meeting established goals. The descriptions allow for replication in other rural sites. The results of the evaluation and reasons for the success of each approach are given along with recommendations for avoiding pitfalls to success.

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An Intern Teacher Preparation Program in Rural Schools

The intern program at San Jose State University is designed to meet the serious need for special education teachers and to provide training that best fits the needs of teachers-in-training who are responsible for special education classrooms. School districts that are unable to find qualified special education teachers can select candidates from among the best regular teacher applicants. If the teacher is eligible for the University program, based on grade point average and professional recommendations, the teacher is issued an intern credential in the appropriate special education field (either severely handicapped or learning handicapped.) The teacher is employed at full salary and is given 10 released days each year to attend intern seminars and other intern activities. Overall course requirements remain the same as for other special education teachers-in-training, but course sequence and supervision is changed.

The following features characterize the intern instructional program.

1. Summer courses and practicum provide immediate training in special education curriculum and management.
2. Course work is sequenced to provide curriculum, assessment and management courses occur first; generic study and theoretical courses are delayed.
3. Supervision is provided in the first and last semesters, and more often if needed.
4. An Intern Program Committee (required by law) link together the University program and the participating school districts. The committee includes faculty, district administrators and district professional organization representatives.

5. Districts provide on-site supervision as they would for any new teacher and mentor teachers are assigned in districts where they are available.

The intern program provides for an orderly and responsible approach to the critical teacher shortage. It allows rural regular education teachers to enter special education while they continue to teach. It also provides for a high degree of school district involvement, a maximum amount of supervision at an early point in training, a sequence of courses that meets the needs for immediate, practical skills, and an ongoing process for monitoring teacher progress.

Training Support Personnel Serving Handicapped Students in Rural America

Imogene Land

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Presented at the Second Annual
National Rural and Small Schools Conference,
Arlington, VA, October 1987.

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Training Support Personnel Serving Handicapped Students in Rural America

Not so long ago (before 1975) many children were excluded from our public schools. We said some students were not smart enough, a few students could not climb the steps of the school or board our buses. Others just could not learn in the same way or at the same speed as the majority of the students. Some could not behave like "good boys and girls". These students were excluded. We sent blind and deaf students off to institutions because we felt they could not profit from public school instruction. However times have changed. The Education For All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) was signed in 1975. This law stated that all children, including handicapped children, have a right to a free and appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment possible. This meant that children with serious handicaps would be attending public schools in increased numbers. The intent and purpose of this law has now been implemented, but we must continue the training of some very important members of the educational team in each local school system in the country.

This paper deals with the training needs of support personnel (bus drivers, custodians, food service personnel and school secretaries) in public schools. All support personnel need information that will reduce anxiety in working with handicapped students. They need to develop a basic awareness of different handicapping conditions: to foster total school commitment to serving the handicapped: to learn methods of establishing and maintaining a less restricted physical environment. and to learn basic skills for dealing with handicapped students. Each group of support personnel has very specific responsibilities in their speciality areas of service. This paper presents the basic content which should be shared with support personnel as part of their staff development. This material is drawn from a series of four-hour awareness workshops developed by the authors for the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

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The basic information needed by all support personnel includes an introduction to the characteristics of handicapped students, skills for communication, and medical information which may explain the behavior of the children.

Introduction to Characteristics: A Layman's Vocabulary

Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing

The child who is deaf cannot hear well enough to understand what someone else is saying. We say the child is hard-of-hearing when, even with a hearing aid, a hearing problem is bad enough to make school difficult, but the child is not totally deaf.

Blind and Visually Impaired

The blind child cannot rely on his vision to tell him about his world. The child who is visually impaired may be able to see, but requires more than just glasses to succeed in school and to get around in the environment.

Physically Handicapped

Physically handicapped children can have many different problems. They may not be able to walk or use their arms. They may have trouble breathing or be very weak because of a long-term illness. There are many other physical handicaps in addition to these.

Severe Mental Retardation

There are some children who, as a result of an accident, birth defect, or other cause, cannot learn to read and write and may not learn to talk. Their brains have in some way been damaged or have not developed so that they are unable to learn these skills.

Mild Mental Retardation

Other kinds of handicaps cannot usually be noticed just by looking at the child's face or body. There are some children who do not have as much ability as normal children have. This can be caused by a lack of education, by an accident, birth defect, or high fever, or by any number of other reasons. Often these children are not identified as handicapped until they are placed in a classroom situation.

Emotionally Disturbed/Behavior Disordered

Some students do not behave normally. They may not let us know they are around because they stay away from other people and often do not talk to us, others everyone knows because they behave so badly. These students may be labeled emotionally disturbed.

Speech Impaired

There are students who cannot easily make themselves understood when they try to talk. They usually will not look different; they often will not speak because they do not want you to know they have trouble talking.

Learning Disabled

There are some children who are not handicapped in any of the ways we have seen, but they still have a lot of problems learning. We call these students L.D.

How do these children affect the custodian, the secretary, the food service worker, and the bus driver? They will come in

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contact with some of these students every day. Some will need special help, while all can be aided by acceptance and understanding. Deaf and hard-of-hearing students may be able to read our lips, but we have to be sure they can see our lips. We may need to learn sign language to be able to get them to and from school or to help them get food and find the proper classes.

Visually impaired students need large print, or even braille, to read the names of food or notes about bus problems. Hallways need to be clear of items that they might fall over.

Physically handicapped students may need special transportation and ramps to get to school. They may also need a special tray in the cafeteria as well as special arrangements in the bathroom.

The severely retarded child who comes to our school may need extra supervision on the way to and from school, as well as all day at school. This child may not be able to easily follow verbal directions.

Mildly handicapped students may not need anything that is different from what other children need. However, extra effort may be needed to understand and being extra patient will help them be successful in our public schools. Sometimes it is not easy to put up with students who cannot relate to us the way most kids do.

Medical information is important because handicapped students are more prone to illness than are other students. Some handicapped students have seizures. There are different kinds of seizures. A petit mal seizure may last for a few seconds and consist of a very short blackout. This seizure may not be noticeable. A grand mal seizure may involve wild thrashing of the arms, saliva may flow from the mouth and the body may be rigid. A drooling child may choke on his or her own saliva. A seizure can happen at any time or place - on the bus, in the hall or the lunchroom. All support personnel need to know what to do.

Bus Drivers

The requirement of P.L. 94-142 mandates certain responsibilities for support personnel. We will now address the information needs of bus drivers. The responsibility for transporting handicapped students has been given to the states by Federal Law. Transportation is one of the "related supportive services" required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education. The definition of "transportation" (P.L. 94-142) states:

"Transportation" includes:

(I) Travel to and from school and between schools.
(II) Travel in and around school buildings, and
(III) specialized equipment (such as special or adapted buses, lifts, and ramps), if required to provide special transportation for a handicapped child. (Subpart A, regulations. Fed. Reg., August 23, 1977, Sec. 121 A. 1, p. 42480)

Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (A Civil Rights Act) also requires schools to provide transportation

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for the handicapped. The law states (Sec. 504) ...insure that adequate transportation to and from the program is provided... (Subpart D, regulation, Fed. Reg., May 4, 1977, Sec. 84.33, p. 22682).

Many states have published School Bus Drivers Manuals, however there may not be adequate training for those dealing with the handicapped. These students may be riding adapted buses, vehicles specially designed for transporting wheelchairs and other mechanical devices or the regular school bus. Regardless of the type of bus used, the bus driver needs information about physical, mental and emotional conditions of the students so he/she may assure the handicapped a safe ride with their peers.

School bus drivers need to know the minimum standards for vehicles transporting handicapped students. These are found in the 1980 revised edition Standard For School Buses and Operations, National Minimum Standard For School Buses, National Minimum Standard Guidelines For School Bus Operations. The bus driver must be aware of techniques for loading and unloading physically handicapped students. Some students may need to be allowed to crawl up the steps of the bus, yet others require buses equipped with a power lift platform. The safety design of a lift platform will help the wheelchair and the operator's feet from being entangled during the raising and lowering of the lift if the driver has been trained in the proper procedures.

Discipline and behavior control is a major concern on all school buses. In order to maintain that discipline the driver must be able to communicate with the student that may not be normal. Non-traditional ways of giving and receiving information may be required. For example, the visually handicapped student will need to be called by name. They cannot see, but do many things by the sense of touch. They will need to be seated in the same place each day with the seat belt in the same position so they can learn to fasten it. All directions must be given verbally in words they understand. Everything must be described carefully.

The deaf students will use their eyes to get information. They may talk, but without expression. Some will read lips or use sign language. Talk in a normal tone of voice, DO NOT YELL. Some students will utilize body language. Sign language can be very helpful. Carry a pad and pencil for communicating by writing notes. If the noise level is high, students may turn their hearing aids off. If the student usually hears and suddenly stops, check the hearing aid. Both visually and hearing impaired students need friends. Seat them with someone they can communicate with. Other students can assist with the communication problems of the deaf and blind.

The main goal for the handicapped student is to be able to take care of himself/herself to the maximum extent possible. This means control of one's behavior. No student must be allowed to endanger the safety of others on a bus. The most important thing a bus driver can do is plan for different situations that might occur and be prepared to deal with it before it happens.

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The Custodian

The custodian is defined by Webster's Dictionary as "one who protects and maintains property". With increased numbers of handicapped children in the schools this role has increased. The custodian is now called in to provide special assistance for many different situations such as wheelchair maintenance, special equipment such as oxygen tanks and alterations of the physical plant to aid the physical handicapped student to take care of basic needs such as a drink of water or a trip to the bathroom.

Many rural schools do not have a custodian on the school grounds during school hours. Yet there are suggested ways the custodian may help prepare for the handicapped student.

1. Keep hallways free of objects. This is very important for blind or partially sighted students and also for students in wheelchairs or using walkers. Any object left in the hallway may cause injury to blind students or students in wheelchairs.
2. Arrange desks or equipment to meet needs of special students. The teacher may develop a special plan for desks or equipment to be used by the handicapped. The custodian may be responsible for maintaining the
3. Restrict use of chemical and cleaning agents. Handicapped students may be especially sensitive to harsh chemical or cleaning agents used in the school building. The custodian should check with the teacher or principal will affect the handicapped students.
4. Maintain appropriate floor surfaces. A hard slick finish may be very attractive but it may not be appropriate for handicapped students in wheelchairs, walkers, or on crutches. The slick surfaces make it difficult for wheelchairs and other devices to develop friction with the floor. Such slick surfaces may contribute to accidents and may make it more difficult for the handicapped to get about. A clean surface which is not slick is best suited for handicapped students.
5. Keep all tools, cleaners, and chemicals in a secure closet or work station. It is very important for the safety of all children that tools, cleaners, and chemicals be kept in a secure (locked) room or space. Handicapped students, many of whom may not be able to read label warnings, are especially likely to hurt themselves if tools, cleaners, and chemicals are not secured in a locked room.
6. Maintain sanitary drinking fountains and restrooms. This is important for all children but it is even more important for handicapped students. These students are very prone to getting colds and other respiratory diseases. Handicapped students may not use the drinking fountain or restroom facilities according to the best hygiene methods. Therefore sanitary fountains and restroom facilities are very critical to the health of the handicapped child.

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The practices just described are ways in which the custodian can assist the handicapped student even if the custodian's work is done after school hours when no children are at school.

If the custodian is at school during school hours, there are several other ways in which he or she may help the handicapped student.

1. Keep work tools out of halls and aisles. The custodian should never leave tools such as mop buckets, brooms, hammers, screwdrivers, ladders, or vacuum cleaners in the halls or in classroom aisles. Blind or partially sighted students may not be able to avoid these objects and may suffer serious injury if the halls and aisles are not free of these objects. The students using wheelchairs, walkers, and crutches are also likely to be unable to avoid tools and other items left in their path.
2. Provide emergency clean-up. Any child may become ill and create a mess which has to be cleaned up; however, some handicapped children are more likely to create such messes because they may have stomach control problems. These students cannot always control the illness and when they do not, emergency clean-up will be needed. Obviously, the clean-up makes the classroom more sanitary and more pleasant to be in.
3. Move special equipment. Many handicapped students have special equipment to help them to function better in the school. The special equipment may be a wheelchair, oxygen source, teaching machine, etc. The equipment may have to be moved when handicapped students move from one place to the next. The custodian may be the person most able to move the equipment. The custodian should check with the principal and teacher to determine if his or her services are to be needed.
4. Provide maintenance for special equipment. Handicapped students may have special equipment which assists them to learn, hear, move, breathe, etc. Such equipment may need occasional maintenance while the student is at school. The custodian should be sure he/she is prepared to provide such occasional maintenance. It is very helpful, if maintenance is likely to be needed, to get information about the proper maintenance of the specific equipment from the parents. The principal or teacher can help the custodian by requesting that parents provide such information in advance of the need. Always check with the school principal before providing any maintenance on a wheelchair.
5. Assist handicapped students to their classrooms. Handicapped students will usually have close supervision; however, they may occasionally need help in finding their classrooms if they are not supervised. The custodian should take the handicapped student to the classroom. Just telling the student the way to the classroom usually will not insure that the handicapped, especially the retarded, student will get to the classroom. If the

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custodian does not know where the classroom is, the student should be taken to the principal's office. The principal will be able to determine where the student should be.

6. Be a good model. The custodian is one of the adult models the children pattern their behavior after. If the custodian sets a good example, then the children have a good pattern to follow.
7. Be pleasant. Handicapped students especially respond well to a pleasant, friendly person. If the custodian is pleasant to the students, they are much more likely to respond positively to the custodian and to respect the work of the custodian.

Food Service Personnel

The school cafeteria has traditionally been a place where all students can enjoy a nutritious meal in a pleasant social environment. The handicapped student has been mainstreamed into our public schools and cafeterias. Learning does not stop in the classroom, but continues into the public school cafeteria. In order to create a satisfying experience for the handicapped, a trained group of food service personnel is needed.

Minor changes in food preparation methods may be necessary for handicapped students. Consideration of problems with use of hands and chewing function can determine these changes. The following are examples of some possible preparation methods best for the handicapped:

1. Warm or cool foods rather than severe temperatures.
2. Curly noodles rather than spaghetti.
3. Soft, thin sliced bread for sandwiches.
4. Serve taco ingredients separately; they are too difficult to handle in combination.
5. Avoid foods with hard crusts such as pizza.
6. Serve thighs and breasts of chicken without rib bones.
7. Serve foods raw when possible for ease in handling, such as a raw apple or finger food rather than a baked whole apple.
8. Serve a corn dog on a stick rather than a hotdog on a bun.
9. Avoid highly seasoned foods to prevent coughing or choking.
10. Casseroles are easier to eat than several foods served separately.
11. Applesauce can be mixed with peas or other hard to handle vegetables and food items
12. French fries rather than baked potato.

The nurse or handicapped student's teacher should alert school food service personnel to special dietary needs of handicapped students. In some cases the student may tell the food service personnel themselves. Students should be taught to recognize foods they are not permitted to have and to eliminate them from their selections. Sometimes families may send special

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foods from home.

Examples of special diets needed by students are: (1) low-calorie diets due to lack of mobility; (2) diabetic diets; (3) low sodium diets; and (4) others.

Simple changes in a normal school food service menu can be made to accommodate special diets for handicapped children. Following are a few examples:

1. Fresh raw apple rather than apple crisp for sugar-free diabetic or low-calorie diet. Fresh fruit for other dessert substitutions.
2. Removing portions before seasoning for sugar-free and low-sodium.
3. Eliminating salad dressings.
4. Reducing portions for low-calorie diets.
5. Thin sliced bread for low-calorie diets.
6. Canned fruit packed in own juices for low-calorie and diabetic diets.
7. White milk rather than chocolate milk.

In the transportation of the physically handicapped student to the dining room, it is very important that school personnel make the trip as normal as possible. As the student enters the cafeteria, the pace of the lunch line may become slower. Acceptance on the part of the school food service personnel can develop acceptance and patience in non-handicapped students. Every effort should be made for serving and eating activities for the handicapped student to be normal with as little isolation as possible.

Listed below are several basic techniques which can be used to give handicapped students independence in the school cafeteria during serving time:

1. Keep aisles and entrances clear of unnecessary equipment. Be sure wheelchairs and walkers can move through serving lines.
2. Keep all eating utensils and other serving ideas at lower level for easy reach. (Example: front service milk machine)
3. Prepare silverware, beverage carton, and straw in ease of handling packages. For example, wrap silverware in napkin and tape straw to milk carton.
4. Use only non-breakable serving utensils.
5. In cases of severely handicapped students with limited to no use of their hands, it may be necessary to designate a specific seat in the cafeteria and have eating utensils already on the table. It is important, however, to allow the students to go through the regular lunch line as they will probably be able to handle a tray on their lap or on the arms of the wheelchair.
6. In the case of a child with a walker, which limits the use of his/her hands, allow the student to go through the lunch line with assistance from a fellow student.

It should be noted here that when school food service personnel are given the responsibility to serve meals to handicapped students, it is essential the food service personnel

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consult with the handicapped student's teacher and perhaps the student's parent(s). With the cooperation and assistance of these individuals, the student should have the opportunity to participate and enjoy the school lunch program independently and with confidence and self-respect.

The School Secretary

The role and responsibilities of the school secretary provide many opportunities for handicapped students to request and benefit from the services of the school secretary. The major responsibility for an efficiently run school office lies with the secretary. The secretary works very closely with the school administration. It is very important that clear lines of communication be maintained at all times between the secretary and administrators.

The secretary will have direct contacts with handicapped student and their parents in the school office. He/she may have indirect contacts through telephone calls and written material. Other responsibilities may involve filling out reports and maintaining records for handicapped students.

The secretary has many responsibilities concerning confidential information and records pertaining to handicapped students. Parents of the handicapped are by law now part of the team working with their children. Communication among public school officials, parents, and the school community is very important. An important responsibility of the secretary is to maintain positive public relations between public school personnel, parents, and the community.

Handicapped students are more prone to illness than are other students. Many get sick at school and are referred to the office when there is no school nurse on duty. The secretary must assist these handicapped students. Many times it is the duty of the secretary to decide if the student is sick enough to go home. He/she may take the student's temperature or talk with the student to determine if the student is temporarily upset or really ill. If the student needs to go home, the secretary will call the parent or responsible person. The secretary should make the student as comfortable as possible while he or she is waiting to be picked up. The proper school officials should be notified of the decision.

Some handicapped students may be on medication and may give the medication to the secretary for safekeeping. The secretary may keep a log of each incident dealing with medication. The student's name, kind of medication, and the date and time the student picks up the medication will be recorded. The secretary will not give medication. The taking of medication is the responsibility of the student.

A change in type or dosage of medication can cause a change in a student's behavior. If a sudden change in behavior is observed, report the change to the proper school officials as soon as possible.

The school secretary is often responsible for confidential

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information. Records are kept in a central location and the school secretary must know the legal procedures for examination of information about students. Most states have developed policies and procedures for their state in compliance with P.L. 94-142.

The school secretary is a very important member of the educational team of support personnel. All students need the aid and friendship of the secretary. The handicapped student may need special service from the school secretary. What can be done to assist the handicapped student to reach the desired educational goals?

1. Be friendly. Call the handicapped student by name; say hello when he or she enters the office.
2. Contact the handicapped student's teacher and other appropriate school personnel to find out the needs of each student.
3. Be kind and understanding when talking with parents in person or by telephone.
4. Set a good example of support and acceptance of handicapped students so others will follow your example.

An important goal is for the school secretary, the handicapped student, and the parents to feel that school is an enjoyable and profitable experience.

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Districts on the Edge: The Impact of Urban Sprawl on a Rural Community

There can be no doubt that mass society has had a profound impact on small town life in America. Yet despite economic opportunity elsewhere, agricultural intensification, and predictions of doom, the small towns remain. In fact not only do towns survive, they maintain their uniqueness. Their story has been told often and well (Gallaher, 1961; Hatch, 1979, and Vidich & Bensman, 1958).[1] The function of schools within these survival struggles has also been interpreted many times. A special telling is that of Alan Peshkin's Mansfield (pseudonym) in Growing Up American: Schooling and the Survival of Community.

Rural America has been honored by educational researchers across the country who have come to realize that schooling in small communities is a significant part (some say unfortunate, Goodlad, 1981) of a larger struggle to preserve the heritage.[2] This recognition, along with other factors, has led to the establishment of rural education departments on many college campuses. Scholars at these institutions promote advanced telecommunications for rural schools, strategies for small school sharing and pairing, curriculum innovations with an eye toward limited funds, and a myriad of other research-based programs.

"At risk" communities, those suffering from isolation and loss of political leverage, loss of industry, or agricultural depression; have long been at the focus of "interventionist" research and development in rural education. Efforts to solve schooling problems in dwindling towns have been considered paramount. There is one type of community, however, which has thus far escaped the benefit of scholarly study despite a very real "at risk" status. I speak of the rural districts which, one day, find themselves (to the joy of some and the dismay of others) within the outer ring of concentric circles

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[1] Novelists, too, have made a contribution to understanding the sociocultural dynamics at work in small communities. Most notable, of course, is Sinclair Lewis' Main Street. For those who seek a literary treatment with a deeper agriculture-community emphasis, I suggest County Seat, one of a trilogy of novels written by Paul Corey.

[2] John Goodlad, "Education, Schools, and a Sense of Community" Communities and Their Schools. (Don Davies, Ed., 1981). "There has been a steady, accelerating erosion of the educative function of the school. Ironically, the latter has transpired in part out of our efforts to use the school to buttress the community" p. 333.

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which enclose an urban metropolis. Schools within such communities suffer from very real problems, though of a different kind.

What follows is an attempt to portray the extenuating circumstances of a rural community on the edge of an urban sprawl. As an instructor for one school year in this particular setting, I was involved in determining what the circumstances meant for the community, and more importantly, how the shifting demographics impacted on the school. For the purposes of this study, the pseudonym of Banon will replace the actual name of the village and the identitiy of community residents will be withheld.

THE SETTING

Most everyone has been to a small prairie town and can envision the fields and pastures which line the entrance to such a community. A look at the skyline along the approach will usually yield a few church steeples, a water tower, and more likely than not, a grain elevator.

Ten years ago, a town like Banon would have fit that description perfectly. Today, however, this is not the case. The Banon church steeples are there. The water tower is there, although it is a massive structure and colored light blue like those you might see in the middle of suburbia somewhere. It is very unlike the small, metallic-colored towers seen in most rural communities. The grain elevator, however, often the hub of a rural community, is gone.

Banon is situated about 30 miles from Minneapolis. This location puts the community on the western edge of a Twin Cities metropolitan sprawl, and at the very heart of one of the officially designated seven area metropolitan counties. In addition, however, the community lies on the edge of a large lake consisting of over ten miles of shoreline. The recreational possibilities presented by the water, coupled with the distance from the seamier aspects of urban life, have resulted in a steady influx of newcomers to the once very rural community.

The population of Banon grew modestly between 1960 and 1980. The 1987 estimate of the Minnesota Department of Energy and Economic Development for Banon's population, however, indicates that it has grown more in the last seven years than it did in the previous twenty. It has been the same for Banon Township, indicating a trend toward dividing up the countryside into hobby farms or country estates.

While this article was being written, Jack Lessinger of the University of Washington-Seattle, published an interesting report in the June, 1987 edition of American Demographics. Lessinger's thesis is that a major demographic shift is beginning to occur nationwide.

According to Lessinger, it is the fifth such monumental migratory shift since the American Revolution, and consequently, he labels its manifestation "penturbia." Penturbs are rural communities located just outside what one would consider normal commuting distances to larger urban centers. Lessinger believes that the people who populated suburbia over the past fifty years were fundamentally different from those who are moving to penturbia now. The outlook was different. The values were different. Lessinger calls the new penturbannites "caring consumers," and maintains that they "prefer the simple yet cosmopolitan lifestyle found in many nonmetropolitan areas." According to Lessinger, caring consumers guard their resources, be it energy, clean air, water, or cultural artifacts like historic buildings and parks. Conspicuously absent, however, is any allusion to these new caring consumers and their views concerning schooling. In the case of Banon, a penturb in every respect, this article will work toward an analysis of their views regarding education.

Lessinger labels Banon's county "Class 5." This means that it had an 11% growth rate between 1980 and 1985, more than double the national average. According to Lessinger, Class 5 counties "display characteristics of both penturbia and suburbia."[3] Given the fact that he classified every county in the contiguous 48 states, this part of his analysis is amazingly accurate. To Banon's east lie suburbs within the same county which have suffered from some decline of late. This decline, of course, has been offset by growth in penturbs such as Banon.

One of the immediate results of the shifting demographics in Banon is the question of space in the schools. While it is not yet a critical issue at the high school, there is a severe shortage of classroom space at the elementary school. This fact would no doubt be near the top of a "index of suburb indicators" (or penturb indicators), if such an instrument existed. What one finds on the edge of urban concentric circles are young families, typically with elementary aged children. This seems to be the case in Banon.

Where demand is high, supply seems to follow, as do prices. Referring to Lessinger once again, Class 5 counties are labeled "Risky," meaning that these counties may be good sites for penturbanites. However, he urges caution due to inflated land prices in these areas. Once again, his analysis is accurate. An interview with a local real estate salesman revealed that the same house built on similar lots in Banon or any of several other communities which lie to the west would cost up to $20,000 more in Banon. The quality of life issue, with the lake, certainly plays a part, but so does a more favorable proximity to the urban center.

In terms of supply, the renovation and building going on in Banon is well beyond the most remote hopes of village councils in more typical rural communities. A Banon city councilman shared some new information regarding housing in an interview, "the city council just passed preliminary plans for two new housing developments to go up. One of them is going to have 99 homes in it."

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[3] Jack Lessinger, "The Emerging Region of Opportunity." American Demographics. June, 1987, p. 34.

Some small industry has followed the newcomers to Banon, but every new employer coming into town seems to coincide with the demise of a small business or two.[4] Small operations have difficulty competing with the large variety of entertainment and service options just a short distance away from Banon in the suburbs.

One final note regarding the setting at Banon. Kenneth Wilkinson of Pennsylvania State University, in an address to the Third Biennial GITAP Interdisciplinary Conference in November, 1986 at Grand Forks, North Dakota, synthesized (although he is not necessarily a proponent) what might be called a Marxist perspective concerning the affairs of communities "on the edge." Like the Lessinger thesis, this too may have some application to the realities at Banon. Wilkinson concludes "several writers argue that urban based capitalists organize and manipulate hinterland 'peripheries' to assure maximum flow of profits on investments to the centers where the capitalists can extract and accumulate profits." This is consistent with the extent of housing starts in Banon and the lack of available services in the community. Whether or not this perspective is really the case, it cannot be denied that Banon now suffers from a dependency upon the urban setting.

There are many pros and cons connected with living on an edge between rural and suburban America. What are benefits for newcomers from suburbia, however, may be drawbacks for the rural element, and vice-versa. Suburban perceptions of benefits may draw the newcomers, but do not drive the long-time residents away. The suburban perceptions of drawbacks, perhaps, hold the rural element, but do not deter the newcomers from coming.

Thus, in Banon, as in hundreds of penturbs like it, you have a once rural community challenged by the values, attitudes, and belief systems of an incoming population. Gordon Hoke, an educational researcher for the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign once wrote "school- centered disputes are only the beginning of a series of potentially volatile transactions that face residents in rural Illinois, and elsewhere."[5] In penturbia, the potential volatility is quite a bit greater than in the more typical rural community. The differences in outlook are great. Often outlooks clash first over school issues. At the risk of overextending the metaphor, I believe it is safe to say that residents of Banon are "on edge" regarding the role of the school in their community.

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[4] Several bars, two hardware stores, a barber shop, and a grocery store are examples of businesses which no longer competed with options available in the suburbs.

[5] Gordon Hoke, "Looking Forward", an unpublished manuscript available from CIRCE, University of Illinois-Champaign/Urbana.

THE RURAL PERSPECTIVE

The data collection for this document consisted of a series of interviews with school faculty, administrators, and various village residents. In addition, surveys were distributed to all juniors and seniors at Banon High School to get their views on certain subjects and backround information regarding their home environments. Surveys designed to elicit household information were also distributed to first and second graders at the two parochial elementary schools in town. These were sent home with the children with instructions to have their parents complete and return them. The survey return rate from the high school students was 100% and returns from the parochial elementary schools reached 83%.

The first task was to separate responses into "insiders" (long-time residents) and "outsiders" (newcomers since 1970). Household information reveals a slightly higher incidence of single-parent homes among the newcomers, as well as slightly more use of day care facilities for their children. Whether or not there are any youth behavioral manifestations of this fact, or indeed, whether or not the statistics, due to availability sampling, are misleading, is not an issue of concern. What is of concern is the rural perception that problems within the community arise from these circumstances.

An English teacher at Banon who has taught in the junior and senior high school for the past eighteen years represented the rural perception when asked if she had seen any changes in the school in recent years:

> This year more than any other I've noticed. We have, all of us, remarked on this year's seventh grade class as the year the outside world finally hit Banon. We have more kids from single-parent families. We have more kids who have moved into the community rather than having been here all their lives, with grandparents here, and everything. We have more kids who are less interested in school as the most important thing in their lives. I'll bet you we have everything you have heard of as a social issue with young kids. Everything. I mean drugs, sex, alcohol, tobacco, single-parents, divorce, child abuse, everything. We have become urban real fast. Almost overnight.

One would have great difficulty establishing a correlation between student learning and behavioral problems, and incidence of newcomers to the community. And even if one could accomplish it, it would tell us nothing about causation. But my own experiences as a teacher at Banon were a sharp contrast to my experiences teaching in a more typical rural setting. For example, in one section of a psychology class of 34 seniors, I discerned the following information. There were two married females in the class, each with an infant child, and one unmarried father of a newborn child. During the course of the class, one single male left home with pick-up truck and loaded shotgun, threatening suicide. He stayed away all night. Arriving for school the next morning he was taken by the sheriff to a treatment facility where he remained a month. Another male student preferred to sit alone rather than sit with peers while doing group work in the classroom. Three males worked full 40 hour shifts at local manufacturing plants. Several females worked almost full time as waitresses. Thirty-two of the 34 students were working at least part-time.

Not one of these cases would have been unheard of in a rural classroom. But the heavy concentration of such cases in a single class was evidence that I was teaching in a far different setting than I was used to. Every indication pointed to the fact that Banon, once very typical of rural settings, is no longer.

The perspective of another long-time resident is helpful. Regarding changes in the community and the school, Banon's athletic director had this to say:

> When I came here first, the town had more of a sheltered, small-town feel to it. The kids were into the school as being the activity. It wasn't that the kids didn't have cars, didn't hold jobs, because they did do those things, but the focus still seemed to be very much around the school. And that has gradually changed through the the years to a point where no longer do I consider Banon to be a rural community. It still has a rural element, but if you look at Banon and compare it to say, Nothem [to the west], you can really see there is a tremendous difference between the two communities.
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> We definitely now have students coming to us whose perspective is not necessarily the school as a focus. Instead, the school is where they come during the day. They have tons of activities going on in other places that they can get to. The focus is definitely away from Banon as much as it is in Banon. The kids just don't need a school activity for them to have something to do. (See Table 2)

His comments are perceptive and describe an integral part of the contrast between views of mainline Banonites and newcomers regarding the role of the school. The question may be best put using a quote from Alan Peshkin's study of Mansfield.

> [Mansfield's] children must be competent to cope with the world beyond its borders. But the nature and limits of competence are defined by the mainstream Mansfielder, just as the community is essentially defined in his terms. For better or for

> worse the school serves those whose views dominate. And like a good shoe, Mansfield High School fits mainstream Mansfield.[6]

The problem in penturbs such as Banon is that it is very unclear who is defining the "nature and limits of competence" for the school. Whose views of schooling dominate? Or, more importantly, how have compromised views affected the state of educational affairs in Banon?

The uneasiness of mainline Banonites regarding the school is due to their perception that the new suburban element 1) has introduced undesirables into the community, and 2) has diminished the non-academic and noneducative functions of the school. For example, many long-time residents believe the school has changed drastically in recent years. Apathy, they believe, is rampant. School spirit is dead. Successful athletic teams which in the past served to unite the community are now consistent losers. There is a general feeling that the new element is responsible for these circumstances.

Two of the six Banon School Board members can be labeled newcomers to the community. Lines are seldom drawn, there are few 4-2 splits on issues, but it is interesting to note some things happening at the school which lend credence to the rural view that the Board has somehow let control slip away.

One of the best parts of Peshkin's treatment of Mansfield is his analysis of the district's selection of a new superintendent. Mansfield's Board of Education screened and dismissed candidates for "having ideas for the city schools," "having too many ideas," being "too intelligent for this community," and for thinking a candidate might be "a little slow with discipline problems." In so doing, the Board defined their community's beliefs about the role of the school. Peshkin concluded:

> After hearing their deliberations, who could doubt that they sought a person who would administer the school system in their spirit, true to the prevailing outlook? 'He's country,' they agreed and thereby reassured themselves. Neither in questions to the candidates nor in their deliberations afterward did they focus on a candidate's capacity to lead Mansfield to academic grandeur. They inquired, instead, about a candidate's fit with their orthodoxy and then eliminated one man after another until they discovered they felt most right about Reynolds.[7]

Not every rural community does things the Mansfield way. I believe, however, that an inclination to the familiar, to the conservative, to explicitness about order and discipline is more the norm than the exception. Personally, I have witnessed the recruitment of two superintendents in very small, rural districts.

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[6] Alan Peshkin, Growing Up American. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1977, p. 205.
[7] ibid., p. 82.

In each case, the candidate chosen was not only from a small town background, but was coming, professionally, from a rural district as well.

But this was not the case in the selection of Banon's current superintendent. First, he is a native of an urban area on the east coast and does not fit anyone's definition of "country." Secondly, he is an extraordinarily articulate man, something which might have worked against him in Mansfield. Third, his work just prior to accepting the superintendency in Banon was managing the curriculum and instructional affairs of a large district in southern Minnesota. He has made no bones about the fact that he is trying to bolster the school system academically, or lead them to "academic grandeur." He has introduced much more testing into the curriculum, a comprehensive gifted education program, as well as several academically oriented extracurriculars. He maintains that discipline is outside his sphere of duties, and is the responsibility of the principal. He asserted when he took the position that he would not honor a time-tested Banon postulate which stated that new teachers be started at minimum salary even if it meant they would be low on experience and training. In other words, he made it plain he intended to hire experienced, proven teachers despite their cost, and has done so. And there was apparently an agreement between the Board and the new superintendent regarding the purchase of a car for his business and personal use. No one seems to know the details of the arrangement, but the car remains a sore spot for many in the district. It is difficult to imagine such a man being hired in a rural community. He is not a native of the region, he has no apparent philosophic bent for fiscal conservatism, and he has no desire to deal with discipline.

Such a man might fit "like a good shoe" in a large, affluent suburb, not fit at all in a rural area, and fall somewhere in between in a penturb like Banon. The superintendent may have aptly described the situation himself in an interview:

Question:	Do you see Banon becoming, eventually, a suburb of the Minneapolis/St. Paul area?
Superintendent:	I think sometimes we consider ourselves a suburb now. I think half the people in the community may consider themselves a suburb, and the other half may not. This may be part of our problems.

The issue of sports comes into play. Due to location rather than size, Banon High School has been thrust into a "suburban" conference with schools many times larger than itself. This fact, coupled with what may be a few "down" years in terms of athletic talent, have led to poor performances by the school's athletic teams.

To the dismay of many in the community, the superintendent and athletic director have done nothing to discipline or remove coaches, as if such maneuvering might turn scores around. An image of an apathetic high school without much in the way of pomp and circumstance is beginning to emerge in the community. One social studies teacher put it this way:

> There is no school spirit in this school at all. None whatsoever. And that's really sad. There was more school spirit ten years ago than there is now. And that's the honest truth. Part of this is due to the fact that 1) we do not produce winning teams, that helps, and 2) we have too many other things to do. It's not cool to get fired up at a pep fest, for instance. And that's unfortunate because I think that a lot of young people are missing out on a lot of things.

This kind of picture of their school is unlike the memories (selective or not) of their own experiences at the high school. This leads to fears of a school environment which breeds the alienation they have heard about in the larger urban and suburban districts; schools where kids become lost in the shuffle, get cut from athletic teams, or are prohibited from singing in the choir or playing in the band. Couple these fears with the perception that it is the new element which has contributed to the increase in alcohol and drug consumption among students, exhibition driving, punk hairdos, etc., and you get an idea about how the mainstream Banonite feels about what the newcomers are doing to the school.

THE SUBURBAN PERSPECTIVE

Counter to the impression of problems among youth in the community from the rural perspective is the suburban perspective. The newcomers see Banon as a small homogeneous community free of some of the riff-raff of larger suburbia. For many, the migration to Banon was part of a larger child raising ethic which maintains that a smaller community is a better place to bring up kids. If there are drug and alcohol problems at the new school, they are not as severe as at their previous schools. If there is some unwanted "exhibition driving," it is better done on Mainstreet in Banon than on some interstate in suburbia.

But what about the newcomers' views on schooling? The superintendent, himself a newcomer, put it this way:

> Our school system has changed from a more rural population with a stronger historical perspective to a more suburban population where more people are coming in and working in industries that are based on change in our economy and our society. I think those changes are being reflected in our schools with their attitude.
>
> The more rural group, with a more historical perspective, I feel, had a very strong work ethic and what they were trying to portray through the

> schools is that it was good for kids to work hard and to acquire skills which would allow them to be productive and work hard with those skills.
>
> I think as the changes come with the new suburban outlook and the more technologically associated employee coming into town, that the "work hard" ethic would not necessarily be lost, but added to that would be the dimension of "working smart" in addition to "working hard." This means that there has been more focus in the school recently on such things as gifted programs for youngsters to accelerate their academic programs by moving more quickly through the pre-prescribed program.

I believe that from the point of view of most newcomers, the superintendent has done some admirable things. Since they have no historical perspective of what the high school once was or how it once functioned, dismissing community maintenance roles is easily done. What they want for their children is a school system which brings out maximum academic ability, helping them toward maximum social mobility, something the superintendent referred to as "working smart." They resist the idea of the high school as a source of entertainment, a social center for themselves or their kids.

What makes one think of Banon as a community on edge, in addition to being geographically on the edge, is that despite a sympathetic superintendent, the newcomers feel the school remains dominated by the rural element. The Board of Education is dominated by mainstream Banonites. And a critical problem of space at the elementary school goes unresolved to date by virtue of the fact that two mill levy increase referendums were defeated in the spring of 1987.[8] This fact alone is ample evidence for the newcomers that long-time residents still call the shots regarding education.

Another circumstance, one into which I was personally drawn, makes clearer the differentiation between the two elements in the community, although it is somewhat unrelated to education. Throughout the 1986-1987 school year, a controversy existed over the site selection and construction of a new historical center for Banon's county. The old one, located in Banon, is considered too small.

One group in the community favored construction on Banon Lake of a million-dollar-plus facility with genealogy library and climate control capabilities to preserve manuscripts and artifacts. Others preferred to restore a deteriorating farmsite just out of town currently on the National Register of Historic Places. Part of the house could be restored for genealogy research, another part could function as a museum, and the outbuildings could perhaps be renovated to maintain a farm zoo or something similar. The cost would be a fraction of the other option.

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[8] Out of approximately 1,800 votes cast, the referendums were defeated in each case by approximately a two-to-one ratio.

At somewhere near mid-year I was telephoned by a long-time resident and member of the local historical society. Acknowledging a few commentary pieces on rural issues I had done for Minneapolis and St. Paul papers, she asked me to write an editorial for the local paper in defense of the farmsite option. Somewhat sympathetic with the rural element, as well as feeling a bit honored to have been asked, I did so. The incident illustrates another arena where the clash between long-time residents and newcomers manifests itself.

Personal backgrounds of Banon's teachers also reflect the patterns unfolding in the community. Generally, the older teachers at Banon reside within the community. If pressed, most would sympathize in many ways with the rural element. The newer teachers at Banon, on the other hand, generally commute from the more established suburbs, and sympathize a bit more with the suburban element looking to maximize academic achievement. A glance at the make-up of the superintendent's various academic committees reveals that predominantly they consist of newer teachers.

Students talk at home a great deal about their teachers. The newer teachers are less known within the community. Conversations leave the impression that the teacher core, in addition to the School Board, is dominated by the rural element. It was believed by many that some of the older teachers actually voted against the referendums last spring.[7]

All of these things may leave newcomers to the community with the impression that the school is still very much old-fashioned despite the best efforts of the superintendent. With no ties to Banon, they are demanding the very best from the schools for their children, and many feel they are not getting it.

CONCLUSION

I have tried to relate ways in which the conflict over control of the school manifests itself. I do not believe the struggles in Banon are unique, but I do believe the size and scope of the problems are common to penturbia. There are many rural communities in this country which grow closer and closer each year to the ever-extending concentric circles of an urban metropolis. As they attract newcomers, disputes erupt.

It is the intent of this paper to go one step beyond identification of the struggles, however. How do the struggles impact on the education provided at the school?

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[7] I heard two allusions to this "rumor," once in an interview with a newer teacher, and once in an interview with a young banker who first came to Banon four years ago.

I have already discussed the fact that many adults see the students turning away from the school as the focal point in their adolescent lives. Survey information taken from 166 juniors and seniors at Banon High School indicate this may be true for a large percentage of students, though perhaps not for the majority. Some 56% of the students surveyed indicated that they considered themselves an active participant in the affairs of Banon High School, while 44% said they were not. A few examples illustrate the impact of such a large disinterested group within the school.

Most rural educators agree that homecoming is one of the major events of the school year. In addition to a dance after the football game, the celebration is often marked with the construction of floats and a parade down Mainstreet. In Banon, there is none of this. Although students decorate their halls with streamers and posters, there is no parade and no dance. When asked why the school has no homecoming dance, one teacher responded, "We used to, but kids just stopped coming. We can't compete with the entertainment options provided by the Cities." (Minneapolis/St. Paul)

Once last winter Banon's student council decided to stage a mid-winter dance, thinking that proper advertising and plenty of advance warning might make it a success. They booked a local entertainment act and printed elaborate tickets telling of the strobe lights, video screens, and all of the extras which would make the evening special. I was asked to sell tickets to the senior class since I had daily contact with 95% of them. For two or three weeks I attempted to sell some of the $4 tickets. By the week of the dance itself, I had not sold one. The senior high kids were just not interested. Having booked the entertainment, however, the student council was in a bind. To prevent financial catastrophe to its limited budget, the student council was allowed to open the dance to junior high students, something never before done at Banon. It was estimated that 90% of the students who attended were in the seventh or eighth grade.

The issue of students working at low-wage jobs while attending school is one that can clearly differentiate the rural school from a suburban one. In Banon, 86% of all the juniors and seniors hold part-time positions. Contrary to the case in most rural areas, Banon students have no difficulty finding part-time work. Most teachers at Banon see such employment as a negative contribution to their overall education.

Surveys indicate that 37% of Banon's juniors and seniors spend most of their entertainment hours in the "metropolitan vicinity," 63% in the "Banon vicinity." On the question of whether or not the students "care what people in Banon think of them," the percentages are almost exactly the same. The correlation of the two questions is high (Phi = .78).[10]

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[10] See Table 3.

Changes have come to Banon and there will be more changes in the years to come. From a rural perspective, these changes may be just as harmful as the loss of a major industry in a remote rural area. What can be done to provide a more harmonious atmosphere in the community and the school? Can Banon combat the unacceptable cultural consequences of life near an urban center and maintain a school where academic achievement is maximized while emphasis is also placed on community maintenance functions? Being a community "on the edge," perhaps the opportunity exists for achieving the best of both worlds. But the worst of both worlds is possible too.

There is need for careful study. From a rural perspective, districts on the edge are "at risk" populations. As the homogeneous atmoshpere and the feeling that "everyone knows everyone" begins to diminish, the local school becomes a visible source of conflict. The resulting struggles for control of the school can either subdue one perception of what the school ought to be in favor of another view, or integrate the perspectives by combining the strengths of each to create the best possible educational environment.

TABLE 1

Household Survey Information

PUBLIC SCHOOL HOUSEHOLDS N = 166							
Insiders N_1 = 65				Outsiders N_2 = 101			
	Banon	Metro			Banon	Metro	
Employment Location	43%	57%		Employment Location	35%	65%	
	0	1	2		0	1	2
# of Parents Working	2%	20%	78%	# of Parents Working	1%	35%	64%
	Yes	No			Yes	No	
Single Parent Homes	4%	96%		Single Parent Homes	10%	90%	
	Yes	No			Yes	No	
Children at Day Care	8%	92%		Children at Day Care	9%	91%	
	Rural	Sub.			Rural	Sub.	
Banon Rural/Suburb Classification	45%	55%		Banon Rural/Suburb Classification	43%	57%	
PAROCHIAL SCHOOL HOSEHOLDS N = 65							
Insiders N_1 = 29				Outsiders N_2 = 36			
	Banon	Metro			Banon	Metro	
Employment Location	59%	41%		Employment Location	19%	81%	
	0	1	2		0	1	2
# of Parents Working	0%	52%	48%	# of Parents Working	3%	44%	53%
	Yes	No			Yes	No	
Single Parent Homes	2%	93%		Single Parent Homes	10%	90%	
	Yes	No			Yes	No	
Children at Day Care	21%	79%		Children at Day Care	9%	91%	
	Rural	Sub.			Rural	Sub.	
Banon Rural/Suburb Classification	52%	48%		Banon Rural/Suburb Classification	42%	58%	

TABLE 2

Student Survey Information

JUNIORS & SENIORS N = 166		
1 Do you consider yourself an active participant in the affairs of Banon High School?	Yes	No
	56%	44%
2 In which vicinity to you spend most of your entertainment hours?	Banon	Metro
	63%	37%
3 Are you interested in what the people of Banon think of you?	Yes	No
	63%	37%
4 Do you hold a full or part-time job outside of school hours?	Yes	No
	86%	14%
5 Do you consider school boring?	Yes	No
	82%	18%

TABLE 3

Phi Correlation Coefficient for Items 2 and 3 above. (.78)

		Entertainment		
		Banon	Metro	
Care what the people of Banon think of you?	Yes	96	9	105
	No	8	53	61
		104	62	166

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Proposal Abstract

Title: Implementing a Gifted Program, K-12, in a Rural School Division

Meeting the needs of identified gifted students is often difficult in small, rural school divisions. In such school divisions funds are limited, numbers small, and staff development modest; however, the commitment to appropriately educate the gifted child still should be strong.

The presenter has developed a comprehensive gifted program in a rural school division. The problems of identifying students, articulating a system-wide gifted plan, differentiating for gifted students in the regular classroom, communicating with parents, securing administrative support and functioning as an overall advocate for gifted education will be addressed. In addition, consideration will be given to ways of identifying minority and underachieving gifted children.

A multi-model approach will be described. Included in the gifted program is the use of individual academic gifted plans, involvement of teacher mentors for gifted students at the secondary level, a staff development program to encourage differentiation in the regular classroom, and the development of a program for students gifted in the visual arts.

Participants will be given examples of forms, materials and resources. In addition, opportunities for questions will be provided.

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WHY IS NORWAY DECENTRALIZING ITS SCHOOL SYSTEM?

It's possible that on this third day of our conference some of you might be looking for a relaxing travelogue rather than an outpouring of statistical data. You're going to get a little bit of both. We'll look at some pictures, and we'll also consider several questions. Why is Norway decentralizing its school system? Why is more and more control being returned to rural areas? Can we learn something from the experience of one of the world's most prosperous nations?

First a brief history. Back in the year 872 the Viking King Harold Fairhair united a number of tribes into something resembling a nation. Even though the Vikings had a number of bad habits such as raiding monasteries, and pillaging and burning the villages of their European neighbors, they insisted on a country ruled by law, as long as it was their law. This dynamic Viking culture expanded eastward into what is now Russia, and west to the shores of North America. Unlike the Spanish and the Portuguese, however, the Viking culture was not powerful enough to provide a continuing support base, and their settlements in these far-off places disappeared.

I find it interesting to go to a place and ask the question, "Where did your ancestors come from?", and to receive the answer, "Right here." As we'll discuss in a few minutes, this is an important factor in the debate taking place in the country right now.

Even though Norway is an ancient country, it can also be considered a new nation, because it was not until 1814 that it became independent in a joint kingdom with Sweden. In 1905 it became entirely independent.

Norway is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system of government. It is similar to Great Britain.

As I've mentioned, Norway is a very prosperous nation, among the wealthiest on earth. If you go there take lots of money. Their prosperity is built on North Sea oil, on timber, fishing, mining and shipping.

Let's look at the landscape. Norway is a long, narrow country with an area of 154,790 square miles, roughly three times the size of Virginia. It is about 1600 miles from north to south, roughly the distance from where we are right now to the Colorado-Kansas border. It is bordered by Sweden, Finland, Russia and a great deal of water. Around four million people live there, a population about identical in size to that of Minnesota. Most live in urban areas such as Oslo, with half a million people, and smaller cities such as Bergen, Stavanger and Trondheim. There are also a great number of small, isolated communities, comprising 450 local authority districts, 47 of which are urban, located in 20 counties.

If you are a rural educator in Kansas or Maine, certain realities are imposed upon you by the geography. Let's now look at some Norwegian realities. Mountains. Lots and lots of mountains. Sixty percent of the country is above timberline. Only three percent of the country is arable. There's only one large flat area in the country, down in the southwest section. Another reality is water. Lots and lots of water, often in the form of snow. Fjords with stupdendous cliffs. Fjords which create barriers between communities. Waterfalls. Beautiful to look at but could you get a school bus through here? And then there is the reality of darkness. The Arctic Circle runs through the country, and winter days are very short. When I was there this past May the days were long. It would get dark around eleven p.m., and be light again at four a.m. But imagine working in a school where there would be no daylight until almost noon, and darkness would fall again at three. Students, particularly graduating students like these, make it all up in the springtime, with parties which last for weeks.

Within this complex and demanding geography an intriguing educational system is being developed. There are many questions we could look at, such as the issue of compulsory religion classes coexisting with a policy of freedom of religion. We could ask why there are two Norwegian languages used in the school system, creating exorbitant publishing costs. We could investigate the government's policy toward the only large minority group in the country, the Sami, or Lapps. But these issues are for another time, and will no doubt require another trip to Norway, preferably during the summer when the days are long.

What's going on with Rural education in Norway? What has happened in the past? Up until 1959 there were two legally distinct school systems in the country, one rural and one urban. Legislation in 1959 esentially urbanized rural education, focusing on three areas. First, classes were divided. Each age level had a separate class. What we nostalgically refer to in this country as the one-room schoolhouse ceased to exist, at least in theory. A second area of attention was the length of the school year. Rural schools had shorter academic years, and this was changed to reflect the urban model. Third, curriculum content became standardized. More sophisticated classes were offered in rural areas.

While this process was going on, other changes in the country were taking place. Two characteristics in the demographic and economic development of Norway should be familiar to us. One was a steady trend toward urbanization. Young people just didn't want to stay down on the farm, or down on the fjord, as the case may be. Another trend was the change in the job market, moving away from the primary occupations of farming, fishing and forestry, into trade, administration, education, etc., while basic industry remained fairly constant.

The cities, in the meantime, were getting larger. The population of the country was stable, but the urban population was growing. Arguments evolved which would have enormous impact on rural education. These arguments had to do with such issues as membership in the Common Market, ecological balance, center-periphery economic imbalance, cultural values, city versus country, family integrity, and other matters which are beyond the scope of this presentation to cover during this time period.

What is important to us is that decisions were made. I believe these decisions have implications for us as rural educators.

First, there were economic decisons made by the government. One was to restrict and control development in urban areas. In socialist countries this seems somewhat easier to accomplish than in other places. The government also took measures to stimulate growth in rural areas with such things as capital investment grants.

On the educational front, major decisions were made. The trend toward urbanizing rural education is being turned around. While the standard curriculum remains intact, a new emphasis on local culture is being developed. Educators are emphasizing local customs, local values, and attempting in different ways to communicate to the students that their home is a good place to live.

Why are they doing this? Because the national debate I mentioned asked a very simple question. Norwegians asked themselves, "Can we strengthen our nation by emptying the countryside?" Their answer was precise. No. Weakening the rural areas was not good. They realized that as they urbanized their curriculum, and as they closed rural schools, they were sending a message to the people living in rural areas. "You are not important," was the way the message was being received. "The school your parents went to, the way they learned, these things are not important. We're shutting them down."

And as rural schools closed, something else happened. The community disintegrated. The heart of the community had been taken away. There was no longer a focal point for socializing, for having special events; no longer an institution that was a part of the national fabric yet uniquely the community's own.

Perhaps the most dramatic result of this decision to revitalize the rural areas takes place in the area of school funding. Like many states in our country, Norway has an ability-to-pay index, and allocates funds from the national treasury based on this formula. However, a recent trend reveals the extent of the commitment. Let me quote from an interview I had with Johan Saebo of the Ministry of Church and Education in Oslo. "The question of importance is resolved in favor of small schools," he said. "There is a wave of decentralization. We're now sending funds to local communities with no criteria attached."

No criteria? Obviously there are some legal restraints, and obviously not all funds, but this indicates the dimensions of the return to local control and decision-making. If a community wants to pay for keeping a school open which only has six students, and there are seventy such schools in the country, it may do so.

But what about education? Can students in these small schools really get a good education? Aren't the Norwegians penalizing the students by not letting them go to a larger school? "Our research," says Mr. Saebo, "indicates that a small school with generally educated teachers turns out a better student than a large school."

This simple statement has some profound implications. School size in Norway cannot exceed 450 students. The average size, in the cities and in the country, is 240 students. What would a restriction like that do to our own educational system? What would result? Even more chaotic school board meetings? Bankruptcy in the school bus industry? Happier students and teachers? We don't know.

But we do know this. The people of one of the world's most prosperous nations have decided that rural education is important enough to be a national priority. They have studied the issues involved. They have made decisions. They have made commitments. "The question," as Mr. Saebo said, "is resolved." Can we make that statement? Or, as we close our rural schools and load the buses, are we making another statement?

FIELD-BASED TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM
For Second Career Adults in Shortage Areas

Preliminary Observations and Recommendations

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Paper presented at the
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FIELD-BASED TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM
For Second Career Adults in Shortage Areas

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to report the preliminary observations on an alternative teacher training program for second career adults conducted during the 1986-87 academic year. The program was the result of unique circumstances which arose during fall semester 1985. At that time Union Carbide Corporation announced that they would be laying off or offering early retirement options to a number of individuals, many of whom were degreed, technically trained with academic backgrounds in math and science and would be seeking employment options in order to remain in the state.

Historically the primary source of teachers has been the college age student who completes a preservice teacher training program and enters the profession. This source of teachers is no longer adequate to provide a sufficient number of teachers, therefore new approaches must be identified and used to prepare competent teachers for the profession, particularly in shortage areas such as math and science. Efforts in West Virginia to attract and retain a qualified pool of math and science teachers for K-12 settings have met with limited success, particularly in rural regions.

The reduction of highly talented individuals from industry provided a potential pool of viable candidates to help aleviate the need in our schools for science and math teachers. A number of meetings were held between officials at Union Carbide Corporation, members of the state legislature, and representatives from the state department of education, local institutions of higher education, and county boards of education to determine the public school need for individuals with particular areas of expertise and the type and amount of training they would need to become certified to teach.

Following numerous meetings, faculty members from the West Virginia College of Graduate Studies, West Virginia Institute of Technology and West Virginia State College agreed to prepare initial plans for an alternative delivery system. It was agreed that the field-based participants would need to meet the same competencies as students in traditional programs including proficiency levels on the pre-professional skills test and the content specialization test in each area for which they sought certification. The model was designed to make the best use of their previous training and knowledge, be geared to their adult learning styles, and relate specifically to their occupational needs and expectations. An alterntive delivery system within the "state approved program" concept allowed participants to engage in field-based training concurrent with a flexible, professional seminar program. Consequently, when they exited the program they were fully certified by the state of West Virginia.

From an initial group of seven (7) participants, four(4) candidates completed the program and were certified respectively: Chemistry and Mathematics; Chemistry and General Science; Chemistry and Biology and General Science; and Business Principles. Numbers were small because of limited resources, lack of advance notice and a somewhat restricted pool of potential participants.

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

Following cognitive preassessment and an intense professional instructional block, candidates entered the field-based component of the program. Experiences at the field site were monitored by the school supervisor, the building principal, and a college coordinator. Periodic seminars on campus, addressed related needs and circumstances encountered in the field sites. Gradual induction into the teaching role was guided by those described earlier, with each participant assuming full teaching responsibility at a determined point of readiness. Both formative and summative evaluation plans for participants were integrated into the various program phases and components, including self-evaluation activities.

Identification and Selection

Following general screenings and group meetings at Union Carbide, individuals interested in the program scheduled individual interviews with the higher education coordinators. They received detailed information about the training and were then taken through a structured interview which included information on their academic credentials, personal assessment of suitability for teaching, discussion of previous teaching/instructional activities or related experience, and work with adolescent youth. The screening committee looked for evidence of interest in and commitment to youth, evidence of successful personal communication/human relation skills, personal suitability for working with adolescents in transition, commitment to program goals and training timetables; and a match between undergraduate/graduate content preparation that would make certification possible in a reasonable time frame. Eight individuals attended the individual interviews, five of these entered the program. Two additional participants were added to the program at a later date.

Preassessment

Those individuals accepted into the program were given a content assesment to determine the most feasible teaching specialization(s) for each to persue. Transcripts were reviewed and an individual status sheet was developed by one of the undergraduate institutions outlining the remaining specific content needs, if any.

Since the professional education component of the teacher education program was the focus of the training for this program, each candidate selected to participate in the program was administered a professional education content preassesment instrument by July 28, 1986. This instrument was designed to assess knowledge in human growth and development, educational and learning psychology, instructional planning and delivery, and classroom and behavior management strategies. This instrument was designed by Dr. Securro from West Virginia State College using syllibi and course outlines from the approved courses in these areas from the two undergraduate institutions. From these results, a base of professional knowledge was determined and used to sequence the instructional block that occurred during August 1986. Entry into the instructional sequence varied depending upon preassessment results. Several of the students had taken professional education courses prior to implementation of the program. Following that phase, a "performance" preassessment was conducted in the school setting by the school supervisor and the participants themselves. This phase addressed the general teaching standards for professional education via the West Virginia Board of Education and resulted in the identification of individual needs. These would be subsequently addressed in professional seminars.

Instruction

The initial instructional block, was delivered August 4 - August 15, 1987 by Dr. Ike Owen from West Virginia State College and Dr. Gordon Short from WestVirginia Institute of Technology. The instructional block, was based upon the professional preassessment results and tailored to individual needs and focused upon that content and skill most basic for classroom entry. Concentrated and indepth instruction was provided in middle-adolescent development, learning behavior and strategies, classroom management, and instructional planning and testing/evaluation.

Following this block a series of seminars were presented by faculty from the West Virginia College of Graduate Studies, West Virginia State College and Supervisory personnel from Kanawha County Schools. Paul Leary conduced a seminar giving an overivew of Schools; Jo Ann Hall discussed Human Relations;Jack Yeager presented School Law; and Dick hunt discussed the Role of the Principal.

The participant was placed in a classroom under the supervision of a classroom teacher, college supervisor and, on occasion, county supervisor. The role of the classroom teacher varied depending upon the skills and confidence of the participant. The participants were gradually induced into teaching responsibilities up to four periods per day. Periodic performance assessments were conducted individually and jointly by the college and public school to track progress, identify needs and plan training. Candidates experienced the full realities of the school experience by performing normal non-instructional duties, including supervision of students, completing of attendance reports and records, grade cards and other "house-keeping" responsibilities.

Six participants were assigned to schools in Kanawha County and one to a school in Boone County. The participant assigned in Boone County decided to resign from the program prior to entering the field setting.

Professional Seminars

Periodic seminars, on campus, focused upon the participant's experiences and related needs, as well as continuation of needed portions of the instructional block begun during the summer. Seminars were provided by professionals drawn from a number of agencies, depending upon the topic. Dr. Sam Securro, program coordinator from West Virginia State College; and Dr. Ray Dockery, program director from West Virginia College of Graduate Studies each conducted several of the seminars. One of these two individuals always attended the seminars to facilitate interaction between the intern and the presentor. Topics included classroom management, exceptionalities, effective teaching, teaching "slow" learners, gifted, "special methods" for science and math; school law, and school effectiveness research, instructional strategies, teacher made tests, interviewing strategies and adjusting the curriculum to meet individual needs and keeping kids in school.

CONCLUSIONS

Preliminary examination of questionnaires and transcripts from structured interviews seemed to indicate consensus within and among role groups concerning the following.

Communication among all participants is important to the success ofthe program. Extreme care must be taken to ensure that all participants understand terms, expectations and responsibilities.

The selection and screening process is critical and should be a joint effort of higher education, public school personnel and former participants in the alternative program. A number of individuals indicated that this could be the most important component in the program. As one intern said, "this is not the job for every retired person. There may be some people who are as ignorant about teaching as I was. I grosely underestimated the job. When someone says would you like to teach, it is a nice way to suppliment your income and get home every day at 3 o'clock - WRONG!"

Having a strong content background is important but can not take the place of a sound knowledge of professional education content. Without exception the interns indicated that the professional education courses were valuable and necessary. One intern said "no matter how well you know your subject matter that does not mean that you can go in and teach." When asked if s/he could have been as comfortable in the classroom without the teacher education courses another intern said, "When I started out I would have said Oh, sure,but I don't believe that any more. I think the teacher education courses are valuable. I think that rather than dumping them we ought to stress them and use them more effectively than we do." When asked if their attitude toward education courses changed after being in the field setting one intern stated, "Yes, I think I was looking at the picture from ignorance and I think many of the general public are too. They don't realize what the problems are that the classroom teacher is faced with, it is not like it used to be.

In summary, there is agreement that an alternative delivery system is important to attract talented, experienced individuals into teaching. These individuals have the potential to bring an important dimension to the classroom from their work experience, by sharing with students "why, do we need to learn this?" All participants in the program indicated their support for continuing the program and a willingness to be involved again. The four individuals who received certification through the program continue to be enthusiastic about teaching. One said "It's Fun! It's not easy, if you really want to do a good job its a tough job, and it is very frustrating.... it makes you feel like you're alive, and I'm enjoying that."

Global Learning, Dialectics and Critical Education*

David J. Little
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Recent efforts to reconceptualize learning as part of the process of refashioning a vision of education appropriate for the present have particular relevance for cross cultural educators. This global learning initiative, grounded in the assumption that each culture produces invaluable knowledge for enhancing the progress of humankind and that loss of any such knowledge represents a diminution of this process, when embedded in dialectics, a method of spiritual and intellectual reproduction of society, provides a framework for conceptualizing and implementing education programmes and in particular cross cultural education as the foundation for the framework rests upon the assumption that interpenetration of knowledge between cultures is one of the keys to progress toward a more egalitarian world society.

The integration of principles of global learning and dialectics holds promise for both a vision of education based on a normative diagnosis of the fate of humankind in technocratic society and a dual method of learning, thinking and doing by which society is spirtually and intellectually reproduced.

Global Learning

The idea of global learning has a recent history that can be traced as an ongoing international dialogue about lifelong education which periodically becomes formalized as conferences and symposia with accompanying publications. In 1972 in Paris, a U.N.E.S.C.O. Conference was held in which the topic, the provision of learning opportunities over the lifespan, was stressed with a formal statement ensuing, The Faure Report, Learning To Be (Faure 1972). Again in 1979 The Club of Rome sponsored a similar conference in which the need to learn in such a way as to enable people to anticipate and participate in shaping a future grounded in a concern for a humanistic-oriented world society was stressed. A formal report was issued entitled, No Limits to Learning. In 1985 the dialogue was again formalized in Toronto as an international symposium under the auspices of C.I.D.A., The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and the United Nations University. The participants representing various cultures and disciplines presented views on the relationship between Learning and Development, the title of the symposium report (Thomas & Ploman 1983). The discussion can be summarized as five principles of global learning that can serve as criteria for assessing any educational plan or endeavour.

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Context

The first principle has to do with the new and essential context in which learning is occuring and must continue to occur on a more broadly conceived basis. This new context is two-fold. Advances in communication technology such as the television and computer have altered relationships amoung cultures of the world as well as the structure of knowledge itself. These advances require a reassessment of who should learn, what should be learned and how learning should occur. Two striking instances are database management advances in computer technology and rising expectations brought about by television and its creation of the global village. The positive implications of these advances can be understood through dialectics, a method of cognition that stresses the interpenetration of old and new meanings as the process through which qualitative social change occurs. Inherent in this view is the idea that the knowledge produced by cultures represents old valuable knowledge as well as vital new knowledge. The potential for a higher quality of life is thought to be in the interpenetration of these two kinds of knowledge.

Television, with images in motion, has created an awareness of the products of various cultures. The computer, with data in motion, holds the potential for the creation of unlimited learning opportunities. The challenge is to marry the two communication modalites in such a way as to facilitate the interpenetration of new and old meanings and to strategically deploy learning opportunities over peoples' lifespan thereby influencing social change. In a later section this notion is elaborated as dialectical penetration.

Intellectual

By intellectual we mean the relationship between knowledge and learning, that is the essential problem is to learn how to put knowledge to use. The complexity of knowledge can be elaborated as not only knowing what, where, and when, but also being able to put this knowledge into action.

In addition to the assumption that putting knowledge to use is the essence of learning, knowledge is thought to have the potential to change as it is put to use. The notion here is "theory" guides "practice" but in turn can be modified by practice, hence it has the potential to change each time it is used. One can imagine the implications that ensue if one were willing to see the production of knowledge from this vantage point. The social relationships between researcher-practitioner, teacher-learner, manager-employee etc. would be radically restructured. Indeed the social role of learner would be elevated and broadened to reflect the ideal of an individual as a lifelong learner. The relationship between theory and practice is dealt with in more detail later under the topic of praxis as part of dialectics.

Process

The third principle has to do with viewing learning as a process or a discovery journey that leads to a better understanding of the world and to basic knowledge. The process of learning is asystematic, lifelong and does not easily lend itself to analysis and measurement in tidy time blocks.

It is asystematic in that while individuals pursue a given learning project they invariably incorporate additional learning related to cultural realities. In that learning is a journey in which an individual discovers the world and basic knowledge, unexpected consequences of genuine learning arise no matter how deliberate the action. Learning a culture is a complex process that when viewed from an atomized perspective often becomes incomprehensible.

The concept of wandering conveys powerfully the notion of learning as a journey. In the Budhist sense wandering is connected with past lives, with possibilities for survival in the future as human life continues to evolve through periods of time with unpredictable fluctuations. In wandering or 'samsara', each manifest life provides an opportunity for change and improvement and this opportunity is held sacred in Budhism. The emphasis here is on the importance of an individual learning well what needs to be learned, without undue regard for the time required to accomplish the outcome, as to learn improperly is profane.

Just imagine the implications for planning and providing learning opportunities if we took these notions seriously. Presently we tend to overemphasize the systematic aspect of learning and to view learning in educational settings as occuring in active spurts focussed on discrete tasks when often the institution providing the learning opportunity has one thing in mind, the instructor another, and the learner again something different. A prominent educator puts it this way, the unintended consequences of learning blend with the intended so as to make them virtually indistinguishable and often the result of learning occurs once, twice and sometimes thrice removed from the classroom (Cremin 1976). If we were to try to implement these notions, at the very least, a major turn toward individualized instruction over the full range of possible social locations would be required. This would entail a reconceptualization of the role of time related to learning and perhaps a marriage of images and data in motion in order to deploy learning opportunities over the life span.

Outcome

The principle of global learning here is based on the assumption that both the process of learning and its results are a reflection of not only a people but also of how a people relate to their environment and utilize resources available in their natural setting.

When we think about objectives and goals using this principle, consideration must be given to the idea that the context in which all learning occurs is cultural and hence reflects the goals of that particular culture as well as those of the global culture (village). The process and results of learning represent both a source of identity and a means of survival.

If these notions have validity, think of how exciting learning would be if each outcome and process that educators planned reflected an individual's search for identity and means of survival. When diffusing educational programs for other cultures or for those entering a culture extreme care must be exercised in this regard. Some say that rather than imposing educational models on colonized nations, it is more productive to encourage a search for abandoned and/or forgotten indigenous vehicles for learning that might serve people all the more effectively. Here I'm thinking about native peoples of North America who may be the keepers of priceless ancient knowledge that if not integrated with contemporary technical knowledge will spell disaster for us all. As you can see the thread of dialectical penetration, continues to underpin these principles of global learning.

Structure

This principle of global learning is based on the idea that neural architecture and consciousness are two central structures of mind that when more fully understood and developed make it possible for human beings to realize their unfulfilled historically constituted capacities to spiritually and intellectually reproduce society.

The proposed switch in emphasis from institutional structures developed by society for purposes of instruction to internal structures of mind that make it possible for individuals to learn is already occuring in the academic arena where the study of instruction is gravitating from educational psychology to psychology itself. Neurology, biology, psychology and consciousness, computer science and critical sociology are potentially fertile fields of study from which new insights might be drawn in the quest for a more powerful understanding of learning.

The notion of a reciprocal relationship existing between consciousness and human sensuous activity is useful for understanding the structure principle. Experience is thought to be derived through reflection upon the data we process through our senses. This reflection occurs as the data are passed through consciousness. Of course the central question is about the nature of consciousness. As might be expected, various views exist in this regard. One such view holds that the substratum of consciousness is speciesbeing, a drive to create a material world in which members of the species can live a fuller life. One can see aspects of this view in the adult education shibboleths of learning how to learn, self-directed learning and lifelong learning.

As findings continue to be generated in the fields of study mentioned earlier, the relationship between neural architecture and consciousness will continue to be illuminated. Once again, imagine the implications of designing educational opportunities that took into account a species member's inherent desire to work to make the material world a better place in which to exist. We are to some degree moving in this direction when we attempt to integrate formal, nonformal and informal settings for learning in such a way that these external societal educational structures are deployed in configurations that facilitate the speciesbeing drive briefly mentioned. The relationship between neural architecture and consciousness is further explored in the next section which is dialectics.

Dialectics

As mentioned earlier, dialectics is a way of both thinking and behaving that holds potential for a spiritual and intellectual reproduction of society. As a tradition of thought it dates in the western world from the early Greeks with Plato as the prototypic dialectician. As the thinking element of a critical theory for managing social change, it is currently serving as the basis for a normative critique of the fate of humankind in technocratic society, hence the notion of an intellectual and spiritual reproduction of society. Dialectics (Kosik 1976) can be thought of as being composed of two types of thinking, routine and dialectical; two types of reality, pseudoconcrete and concrete; two types of human activity, everyday and revolutionary praxis; the interplay between the two types of thinking and activity; and the element of totality. Each of these elements will be examined briefly with the idea in mind of relating them to the principles of global learning and the concomitant implications for critical education that stem from these relationships.

As a basis for talking about each of these elements it is helpful to take a view of humankind that holds subjects' thoughts produce the world. This materialist dialectics suggests that the realization of truth and forming of human reality is an ongoing process of individual as well as species development. Since the world of truth is also their own, separate creation, individuals as social beings have both the opportunity and the task of leading their own lives by themselves and non-vicariously. On this view humankind can be seen to have the potential for evolving overtime from a state of self-incurred immaturity to a realization of unfulfilled historically constituted capacities. Maybe this view posits the goal of critical education to be the reduction of the gap between being, who we are, and essence, who we can be. The two types of thinking present the cognitive aspects of reducing this gap.

Routine and Dialectical Thinking

Reality is experienced by individuals through a set of ideas or as categories of routine thinking. These ideas came about as a result of the particular time in history in which particular individuals exist and the way they go about influencing the world, so that experience of reality is always coloured by the historical moment as well as the societal arrangements under which individuals operate. These ideas allow for routine thinking that makes it possible to go about everyday practical activities without undue consideration of every single activity in which individuals are involved.

Routine thinking has its disadvantages also in that this real existence sometimes referred to as phenomenal forms often contradicts or conceals the structue of the thing or its essence. The essential inner kernel of the thing is often referred to as the law of the phenomenon. It is this aspect of reality that connects the ideas, that we will call the concept of the thing in contradistinction to the idea of the thing that comes about through routine thinking using the categories produced by the press of everyday living often concerned with the problems of "earning a living".

Through routine thinking we find our way about in the world, feel familiar with things and manipulate them. The downside of this type of thinking, is that in its direction toward "practical" solutions to everyday problems or aspects of social organization as they appear, it often fails to comprehend phenomena that, in the long run, it might be much more practical to deal with. It is dialectical thinking that has to do with the essence of things and represents an attempt to grasp the totality of being thereby revealing aspects of reality not apprehendable through routine thinking.

Dialectical thinking makes it possible to analyze a social situation in terms of its internal contradictions in such a way that these apparent opposites hold a potential for influencing qualitative social change. Just imagine this to be so and in addition the outcome principle of global learning that all learning occurs in a cultural context and is directed toward the search for identity and a means of survival. Were we to plan and provide learning opportunities based on this perspective much of the mystery and excitement so vital to any learning experience would be insured. Having briefly touched on the thinking aspect of dialectics attention is now turned to the two aspects of reality to which these modes of thinking apply.

Pseudo and Concrete Reality

This element of dialectics is one that requires educators to loosen their grip on the idea that learning progresses from the concrete to the abstract. Provocatively enough in dialectical thought learning is conceived to be a journey involving an ascenscion from abstract to the concrete.

It is helpful to think of the pseudoconcrete world as being that of the thing while the concrete world is that of essence. They are not two separate distinct worlds of reality but rather two aspects of reality. We distinguish forms in the pseudoconcrete world through routine thinking and in so doing usually separate the ideas of things from the concepts of things thereby concealing the internal connections between them. Often contradictions exist and what is thought to be concrete is only pseudoconcrete.

The world of the pseudoconcrete perceived through routine thinking is one of half-truths. The thing conceals the essence even as it reveals it. The inner kernel or essence shows itself in the thing but only to a certain extent, partially, just in certain sides and aspects. The thing indicates something other than itself and exists only thanks to its opposite.

The key to linking pseudo with concrete reality is the recognition of these opposites. This is accomplished by examining the thing, remembering here that we are speaking about social as well as physical things, in search of contradictions that are not to be stamped out but used as a linchpin for capturing totality. Think of the world of things or the phenomenal world as it is called having its own structure, order and laws that can be exposed, described and manipulated through routine thinking and everyday practical activity. Yet this pseudoconcrete world is only part of a larger order that does show itself and is part of the phenomenal or pseudoconcrete world. The thing (pseudoconcrete) is not radically distinct from the essence (concrete), nor does the essence belong to a different order of reality. The latter is a connection of forms or ideas by means of dialectical thought, accomplished by transforming perception into concepts.

To capture the idea of a certain thing is to investigate and describe how the thing itself manifests itself in that phenomenon but also hides in it. Capturing the essence through dialectical thinking is not unlike a detour. One has to leave the normal route in order to arrive at the destination that incorporates a larger whole. The dilemma is not to lose ones way in the detour which can easily happen if one mistakes the essence for the phenomenon or sees them to be separate realities.

The notion of a journey back and forth between the world of the pseudoconcrete and conrete fits nicely with the process principle of global learning in which learning is conceived to be asystematic, that is many things are being learned simultaneously and often in the latent rather than active stage of development. If we were to factor this detour into our planning and provision of learning opportunities, they would take on exciting dimensions that would rival more conventional forms of entertainment. McLuhan of course would say there is no significant difference between education and entertainment. The Budhist notion of learning as sacred wandering (Samsara) is relevant here especially if we think of dialectics as the spiritual and intellectual reproduction of society. The next element of dialectics is the activities through which this reproduction is accomplished.

Everyday and Revolutionary Praxis

In pursuing a particular goal it is practical to isolate certain aspects of reality as important for the moment while leaving others aside. This spontaneous inclination of both practical activity (praxis) and thinking to isolate phenomena and divide reality into what is important and what is peripheral for the moment is known as everyday praxis. Without it, we would be unable to accomplish countless everyday tasks required for survival. This division of the one by leaving other things aside cleaves reality and in so doing makes things abstract and easier. What is important here is that often as we by necessity engage in everyday praxis accompanied by routine thinking we forget about or lose consciousness of the uncleaved or wider reality and also the functional, habitual filters we employ to accomplish this isolation. In so doing we often lose sight of our unfulfilled historically constituted capacities thereby widening the gap between being and essence.

Although as we become enmeshed in everyday activities we often lose contact with the essence or concepts of things, nonetheless there is a dim awareness of the whole in and from which certain aspects have been isolated. This awareness is also spontaneous though it is less clearly apparent to naive consciousness, and is frequently unconscious. This everpresent but latent awareness can be uncovered through dialectical thinking. In so doing we are able to recognize our capacity to alter the world in such a manner as to make possible a more humanitarian mode of existence. The practical activity (praxis) of people directed toward the actualization of humankind based on dialectical thinking is known as revolutionary praxis. By revolutionary is meant the spiritual and intellectual reproduction of society on an ongoing basis.

The two kinds of praxis are or should be part and parcel of every learning opportunity we try to structure. If we accept the outcome principle of global learning that suggests both the process and outcome are a reflection of not only a people and its heritage but also of how people relate to their environment and utilize resources available in their natural setting in their quest for identity and survival; then each learning opportunity should be structured so that in the process of learning how to solve practical everyday problems necessary for survival, individuals deepen awareness of the wider reality in which they exist and their potential for influencing it in a humanistic direction. This could be accomplished by basing instruction on routine or positivistic modes of thinking as we normally do but also on dialectic or emancipatory modes of thinking that foster self-directed learning. Those attempting to plan and provide learning opportunities based on this view would benefit as much in the emancipatory sense as those for whom the opportunities were planned. Attention is now turned to the final element of dialectics, the notion that our consciousness evolves over time and is always influenced by the particular time in which we are living.

Totality

The idea here is that truth happens rather than it being discovered. In dialectical thought an assumption is made that individuals influence or mediate truth or reality through the transformation of perception into concepts that shape the way the world is seen. On this view we are not searching for some timeless truth that exists outside of our sphere of influence rather we are or could be striving to influence truth through reason and activity. It is not being suggested that the truth is created, only that it is mediated or influenced.

As mentioned earlier three factors are thought to influence reality. As individual subjects we manipulate nature, the object, through technical knowledge. We also do this with other subjects who often become objects we manipulate. So we have a three-starred relationship among subject (self), subjects (others) and object (nature). Over time we have lost consciousness of our relationship with nature so that we do not recognize it as part of us, we have so objectified it through placing an undue emphasis on positivistic science that we manipulate nature without listening to it (Leiss 1975). The suggestion here is not that we should refrain entirely from dominating nature and fall back into a mythical bondage with it but rather we should give nature and other subjects a voice. The rational conversation in which all of the elements are heard is thought to be the ideal speech situation that mediates an evolving reality in a humanistic direction (Habermas 1981).

Human history is seen as the story and happening of truth which is neither unattainable or attainable once and for all time. It develops and realizes itself over time and it happens for each individual over the lifespan. Reality is thought to be created by every individual as a social being in concert with other social beings, organized around cultural patterns. Individuals are faced with appropriating the culture and yet at the same time leading their own lives by themselves and non-vicariously. This constant interplay overtime, in which individuals influence the culture and are in turn influenced by it, when examined dialectically in its historical context can reveal unrealized human capacities.

The notion that we mediate reality over time when viewed from the perspective that the more we are able to recognize the influence of our position in historical time or the way we see and hence act in the world can be factored into the creation of learning opportunities so that learners can recognize the potential they have for transcending some of the limitations heretofore thought to be beyond our influence. When the principle that individuals have personal histories from which they can emancipate themselves through dialectual thought and activity is combined with the principle that a culture can do the same, humankinds' potential for unschackling itself from some of the limitations of self-incurred immaturity can be actualized through learning opportunities structured to reflect this combination of dialectical principles.

The global learning principle that neural architecture and consciousness are the structures that make the learning process possible provides guidance for implementing the dialectical notions just mentioned. By integrating what is known about the neurological aspects of human information processing with recent advances in the study of consciousness a view for structuring learning opportunities can be created that encourages and facilitates learners to learn with the idea of putting knowledge to use and in so doing change it. Think of how exciting the role of learner becomes when each learner is seen to be an "action researcher" in the sense that each learner will be attempting to apply the knowledge being learned in the context of a guest for self-identity and physical surivival. On this view the global learning principles that all learning is intellectual and that it is problemsolving and the structures of learning are neural architecture and consciousness are integrated with the dialectical elements of everyday and revolutionary praxis and the reciprocal relationship between consciousness and human sensuous activity. When integrated these principles of global learning and elements of dialectics provide direction for structuring learning opportunities that facilitate realization of unfulfilled capacities to put knowledge to use in such a way that it not only mediates reality for purposes of personal physical survival but in addition influences society toward a humanistic direction. The idea that we put knowledge to use or work not just to be, but as a species drive powered by our ability to think about our sensuous activity is a currently untapped educational vision.

Summary

The key to understanding learning and hence maximizing the likelihood of its occurrence is thought to lie in an integration of principles of global learning and dialectics. Beginning with the assumption that learning drives development, that development moves from less to more complex forms and that is oscillates between active and latent states we can link the outcome, process and structure principles of global learning to the dialectical types of thinking, aspects of reality, types of praxis and totality.

The outcome principle that learning always involves problemsolving within a given cultural situation is made even more powerful by embedding it in the two types of routine and dialectical thinking. In so doing learning situations structured on this view would provide opportunities for learners to grasp totality through recognition of internal contradictions as a source of qualitative change. When the analysis of contradictions is conducted as a normative critique of the fate of humankind in technocratic society, the universal problems of the search for identity and quest for survival by members of a culture became the focus and motivation for learning.

The process principle of global learning in which learning is seen to be an asystematic journey in which one wanders through latent and active stages in a sacred manner is made more clear when seen as the ascension from the pseudoconcrete to a concrete world through the recognition that apprent opposites seen through dialectical thought are in fact form and essence aspects of one reality. The process of learning on this view can be seen as a creative detour between form and essence that uncovers the awe, wonder and mystery frequently missing in the learning process so often constrained in contemporary educational settings.

The outcome principle of global learning, in addition to being embedded in the two types of thinking, can also be embedded in the two types of praxis. Everyday praxis represents activities through which immediate cultural survival tasks are accomplished and accounts for the active aspect of development whereas revolutionary praxis represents the latent aspect of development in which awareness of the whole or essence through dialectical thinking makes possible the pursuit of the spiritual and intellectual reproduction of society as a quest for identity. When this integration is used to structure opportunities for learning, personal as well as species sources of motivation are tapped through the combination of positivistic and dialectical thinking experiences that can foster self-directed and meta-learning.

The structure principle of global learning, in which are posited the twin structures of neural architecture and consciousness thought to make the process of learning possible, in conjunction with the intellectual principle that learning only occurs when knowledge is put to use, clarify for purposes of planning and providing opportunities for learning, the dialectical notions of totality and the reciprocal relationship between consciousness and human sensuous activity. The species drive toward a more complex form that energizes development can be unpacked as the neural capacity to support an analysis of programmes for thinking and acting that take into account the impact of social and personal history thereby pointing to emancipatory possibilities foreshadowed in the shibboleths of lifelong and self-directed learning.

The view of learning presented is one in which learning is seen as the main driver of a development process that is both active and latent. Learning as an outcome, process and structure is thought to occur within subjects producing the world, as an ongoing process of individual and species development, as the realization of the unfulfilled historically constituted capacities of human beings in which they emancipate themselves from self-incurred immaturity and as a reduction of the gap between being, who we are, and essence, who we could be.

The integration of the principles of global learning and dialectics represents a dual method of learning, doing and thinking by which society is spiritually and intellectually reproduced.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1987

10:00 - 11:00 AM

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LEGISLATIVE PLANNING FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED IN RURAL AREAS

Legislative planning is critical to the provision of services for all handicapped infants and preschoolers; however, it takes on new dimensions when professionals consider programming uniquely designed for service delivery in rural settings. The purpose of this presentation is to identify the aspects of rural settings which have significant implications for legislative planning for early childhood-special education; to identify the characteristics of the rural environment which impact on legislative allocations to rural programs; to present strategies for impacting on decision makers and legislators to insure legislative action; and to present methods to parents and professional personnel to effectively utilize the legislative process.

Rural areas have distinct features with significant implications for legislative planning for early childhood-special education services. Legislators must be made aware of these distinctions if they are expected to make equitable allocations for these services. The Office of Rural and Human Development (1976) determined that costs per unit of special services are higher in rural than in urban areas. According to Sher (1978) the majority of unserved and underserved handicapped children are located in rural America. Yet, Helge (1981) emphasized the fact that traditional problems associated with implementing comprehensive special education programs in urban districts are compounded in rural areas. These complications become even more pronounced when addressing early childhood education for the handicapped. For example, although, child-find procedures have been developed and implemented throughout the nation, researchers have indicated that many handicapped children who reside in rural areas are still not identified until they reach the legal age to enter elementary school. Budgets that are developed based on these incomplete child-find data are insufficient for service delivery in rural areas (Anastasiow, 1981).

Characteristics inherent in rural environments create higher costs for service provision to infants and young children who are handicapped. Some factors related to increased cost of service delivery include: distance factors between infants/families requiring services and distance to services, inadequate transportation, lack of well-qualified personnel, cultural and language variances, severity and diversity of handicapping conditions, and unavailability of therapeutic and technological equipment (Helge, 1984). Young handicapped children require services from a team of professionals representing the areas of speech/language pathology, occupational therapy, physical therapy, nutrition, nursing, social work, and others who may not be readily available in rural areas. The necessity of the individualization of service delivery models to include a continuum of services utilizing these professionals results in added expense.

To insure that legislative appropriations are consistent with the needs of young handicapped children in rural areas, professionals must be knowledgeable of strategies for influencing legislative planners and impacting on legislative action. When developing these strategies, knowledge of the issues related to early intervention in rural areas and its relevance to society and tax money is essential.

Another important component of legislative planning is to prepare parents and professional personnel to effectively utilize the legislative process. According to Ross (1985), developing good relationships with decision-makers who will be willing to endorse and sponsor positive legislation is vital. Part of this relationship consists of providing accurate and complete information to legislators. This information should be presented to legislators in concise documents that are written in lay terms (Prince, 1987). According to Prince (1987), legislators want human interest details and statistical data supporting efficacy and the cost effectiveness of early intervention programs in rural areas, as well as the benefits to their constituency. These strategies, if effectively used, should lead to increased awareness by parents and professional personnel of their personal impact on legislative action and allocations in rural areas; increased competencies by parents and professionals in communicating with decision- makers; and improvements in appropriate services to young handicapped children in rural areas.

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The SIELS Program: Using Computers to Serve Young Handicapped Children and Their Families in Their Natural Environments

The Seattle Inventory of Early Learning Software (SIELS) is an alternative intervention approach for young (ages 0-3 years) handicapped children and their families. The project combines computer technology and professional expertise to meet the needs of families without access to local early intervention programs. Many of these families live in rural or isolated areas, and lack access to either educational services for their young child or support services for themselves. SIELS serves these families through the mail and phone calls. Parents assess their child. These results are matched to developmentally appropriate activities through a computer program. A home activity package is then sent to the family. Children are reassessed and new activities are sent to the family. Children are reassessed and new activities are sent to parents at 3-month intervals.

The software for the program is now completed for adaptation by other programs and ready to be demonstrated on any IBM compatible machine. There has been much interest in this possibility and we continue to receive many inquiries especially from rural communities.

In our presentation we will outline the various aspects of the program. This will include information about the development of the model, brief summary of the research, information about how to establish the program in a rural area and a demonstration of the computer software.

The SIELS relies on parents as data sources for regular child assessments. This feature is of growing interest to professionals. We will describe our assessment procedures and then follow that up with a demonstration of how to enter the information into the computer and select activities for the family. We will also provide information on the skills necessary to operate the program and how to utilize the program evaluation features: generating reports on child progress individually and as a group utilizing several different dimensions (e.g. by handicapping condition, age) and monitoring of the amount of professional involvement with each of the families. This program also has the capability of storing and generating mailing lists for families.

This presentation will address several issues of current interest in the field of early childhood special education: the viability of parent assessment procedures, the need for ecologically valid and supportive educational interventions, and the use of cost effective computer technology in the intervention efforts in the field.

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S.I.E.L.S.

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HOME ACTIVITIES
FOR Laura One

MEALTIME

1. Laura can begin to eat solid foods by biting (or gumming) crackers such as graham crackers, arrowroot cookies, rice crackers, etc. You may want to avoid wheat and sugar items. Begin with foods that soften easily in your child's mouth and are firm enough to break off in small bites. First break off a piece of cracker for your child to hold. Allow Laura to bring the cracker to her mouth, assisting only if needed. You may need to provide support just under the child's elbow for her to bring crackers to the mouth and bite/gum independently. When Laura is beginning to eat solid foods you should be sure to watch her in case she chokes. Also observe your child for any allergic responses to new foods.

2. This activity will help Laura learn to hold her bottle. As you are giving Laura a bottle, hold it back from her mouth at midline where her eyes focus on the nipple. When her eyes are on nipple, prompt her arms to reach toward the bottle. Assist as you place her hands on the bottle then cover with your hands. Do this several times at each feeding and observe whether the reaching toward the bottle becomes more routine. Praise these efforts and encourage longer periods of independent holding.

3. In this activity Laura learns to hold her bottle. One of the first tasks a child learns to do for him or herself is to learn to take a bottle. To help Laura learn this task, place her hands around the bottle with your hands over her hands. Gradually remove your hands when you feel her hands are securely in place. Do this when she first begins to feed, as she is likely to tire and will not be as successful in managing the bottle later. Gradually reduce your support as Laura appears to be catching on to the process and your expectations. Be sure to add a few smiles and words of praise when Laura begins to gain this independence.

4. Allow Laura to practice picking up small pieces of food and help her get these to her mouth. Laura will be better able to finger feed independently when she has mastered a "controlled release" of objects (putting objects in a container or stacking blocks). For finger feeding, try cheerios, teething cookies, and slightly cooked vegetables.

MEALTIME GAMES

1. Help Laura practice sitting in a baby-size chair. You might use a high chair, or baby seat that attaches to the table. At first you will need to add blankets or foam inserts to give Laura additional support through the trunk and hips. As Laura gains strength, you can gradually reduce this support. Remember that you want Laura to sit with a fairly straight back and to be able to use her hands.

NAPTIME

1. This is a beginning memory game. Does Laura have a favorite stuffed animal in her crib? If so, play a little game with it when getting Laura up from a nap or ready for a bath. Attract her attention to the toy. Shake it in front of her face. Then drop a blanket or diaper over part of the toy. Encourage Laura to pull on the blanket to see the whole toy. Then, when she gets the toy, let her play with it.

BATHTIME

1. Practice "scooping" in the bathtub. Show Laura how to scoop water, bubbles, soap, or small toys using the same scooping action she would use to scoop food from her tray. Show her how to scoop objects, and then splash them, or let them fall. Scoop the water fast and try to make bubbles, then scoop up the bubbles.

PLAYING WITH OTHERS

1. Gather toys that have a front/back or right/wrong side (mirror, cup, cat, doll). Present these toys to the child, one at a time, upside down or backwards. If Laura turns the toy the correct way, smile and let her play with the toy. If Laura doesn't turn the toy, help her find the corect side. Then try the activity again.

2. This is an activity to encourage babbling. Sit Laura on the floor and place a large rubber ball in her lap or between her legs. Sit across from her and bang the ball with your hands and say "bang bang" or "wam wam." Take Laura's hands and do the same thing. Repeat any sound she says and make it into two bisyllables: if she says "oo," you say "boo boo." What you will try to do here, is try to use a repetitive hand/arm movement paired with sounds (boo-boo). Laura may begin to produce two syllable sounds following your model.

3. Sit in a comfortable spot with Laura. Call her name through a hollow cardboard tube, then say "aaah." Give her the tube and encourage her to make a sound. Take turns making sounds through the hollow tube. Eventually begin to make consonant-vowel combinations (e.g., baba, dada, maba) and encourage Laura to imitate. Vary your pitch and intonation pattern. Encourage Laura to do the same.

4. A pegboard will give Laura opportunities to practice many skills. To get the peg, she must lift the peg up and out. Then she must use her index finger, in isolation, to poke the holes. Later she must accurately place the peg to get it back in the pegboard. Make a pegboard by cutting holes into the lid of a shoe box. Use large crayons or clothespins for pegs. Cut the holes just large enough for the pegs to fit. Secure the lid on the shoe box with tape, string, or a rubberband. Present the pegboard with all the pegs in their places. Help Laura to take them out. Later, you can encourage Laura to give them to you, or to place them in another container. Give them back to

Laura and help her to put them back into their holes.

PLAYING INDEPENDENTLY

1. Let Laura play on the floor to practice her mobility skills. Place Laura on her tummy. Place a few interesting toys in front of Laura and to either side. The toys should be just out of Laura's reach. Laura will have to move to get a toy.

DIAPERING/DRESSING

1. As you diaper or dress Laura, spend some time in face-to-face conversations. Talk briefly to Laura, in an animated way, then pause and listen for her sounds. Eventually, she may begin to respond with cooing and vowel sounds. Imitate any sounds she makes. You can encourage more consonant sounds by gently brushing her lips with a clean diaper, sock, or wash cloth when it is her turn to talk. Early consonant sounds she may make are d, n, and b. Later, she will begin to make sounds beginning with t, p, and m.

2. Sounds or vocalizations that Laura makes will change from being mostly vowels early in life to becoming combinations of vowels and consonants in subsequent months. Laura will often begin to make vowel sounds when she is alone, after feeding, or after just waking up from a nap. Early vocal sounds are called "cooing" sounds. Laura will often make these cooing sounds in your presence, and this is a good time to begin having "talk times" with her. Babies, in the early months, often talk more when parents are talking. Later, they begin to take turns making sounds. After Laura has been making sounds for some time, try imitating her sounds and waiting for a response. Laura will probably not imitate your sounds exactly, and may even stop in surprise. By imitating her sounds, you encourage her to continue vocalizing, and she will begin to respond more to your imitations.

3. After Laura begins to repeat consonants in a "babbling" pattern such as dadada, bababa, papapa, you should hear more variation in vowels and consonants. For example, dadida, biba, etc. may be some patterns Laura will use. Also at this time, Laura should begin to imitate sounds more readily when you initially copy the sounds she makes. Laura's increasing imitation skills make it possible to encourage greater sound variety, since many children may only repeat their favorite sounds at this time such as dada. Note the sounds you hear Laura make when playing with others and when alone. Some early consonants include the lip sounds b, m, p; the tongue-tip sounds d, t, n; and the back sounds k, g. Expand Laura's sound repertoire at play with a hand mirror and imitate any sound she produces. After a few "turns" on both sides, slightly change from her sounds to a different sound. An example would be to change from d to n or b to m so that the sound is still a lip, tongue-tip or back sound.

EXERCISES

1. This exercise let's Laura practice rolling from back to tummy. Place Laura on her back. Bend her right knee. Attract her attention to the left so that her head and eyes turn left, and move her right knee and hip forwards and across to the left. Laura should roll onto her tummy, and her left arm will be under her body. Wait briefly to see if she can bring her left arm out independently. If not, push lightly over her right hip to help Laura lift her left shoulder to free her arm. Repeat exercise to the other side.

2. This activity will help Laura sit independently. Sit on the floor with Laura placed between your legs. Your abdomen and legs will help support her in a sitting position. Give Laura a toy to play with or sit in front of a mirror. Let her play with the toy or watch the reflection in the mirror. As Laura demonstrates more control in sitting, begin to decrease the support you are providing with your body.

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                                                          03/07/87 PAGE 1
Home Activity Package for Laura One
****************************************************************************
Child Number: 0001                      Test Date             : 05/25/86
Test Number : 001                       Corrected/Birth Date: 07/05/85
Sex         : F                         Chronological Age   :   10
Location    : 02  CENTER PROGRAM        Enrollment Date       : 05/25/86
Condition   : 03  OTHER                 Time in Intervention:    0
****************************************************************************
                                                                 Test Age
                                                                 Item Range

MEALTIME
*************************
 1. Introduce cracker--1st time--graham (be aware of allergies)   510   3-5
 2. Reaches and holds bottle                                      512   3-5
 3. Learns to hold bottle                                         512   3-5
 4. Picks up bits of food and puts in mouth                       416   6-8

MEALTIME GAMES
*************************
 1. Child sits in high chair, baby seat                           315   6-8

NAPTIME
*************************
 1. Pulls blanket off, sees partially hidden stuffed animal       113   6-8

BATHTIME
*************************
 1. During bath encourage child to scoop water, toys, etc.        416   6-8

PLAYING WITH OTHERS
*************************
 1. Turns objects to correct side                                 117   6-8
 2. Produces bisyllables while banging ball                       216   6-8
 3. Makes sounds through hollow tube                              219   9-11
 4. Pegboards facilitate many skills (make pegboard)              419   9-11

PLAYING INDEPENDENTLY
*************************
 1. Child on tummy, reaches, turns for toys                       314   6-8

DIAPERING/DRESSING
*************************
 1. Imitate child's vocalizations--encourage consonant sounds     216   6-8
 2. Beginning stage of sound imitation (6-8)                      216   6-8
 3. Imitate a variety of consonant sounds                         219   9-11

EXERCISES
*************************
 1. Child rolls from back to tummy                                314   6-8
 2. Practices sitting between parent's legs                       315   6-8
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A PARTNERSHIP APPROACH IN DEVELOPING A MODEL FOR IMPROVED STUDENT LEARNING AND TEACHER RENEWAL IN RURAL/SMALL SCHOOLS

Abstract

Establishing partnerships between institutions of higher education (IHEs) and local education agencies (LEAs) is a recommendation now often found in the many state/national reports advocating educational reform. The rationale for such partnerships is that such collaboration can assist LEAs in their efforts for school improvement and for IHEs to more actively participate in addressing certain problems confronting public education as well as acquiring another means for strengthening their teacher preparation programs. Based on this rationale and some principles of educational networking, a partnership was formed with Texas Tech University (Lubbock, Texas) and Greenwood ISD (Midland County, Texas), the Greenwood Parent-Teacher Club, Education Service Center--Region 18 (Midland), Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (Austin), Permian Basin of County Governments, West Texas Chamber of Commerce, and the Midland Chamber of Commerce.

The overall goal of this partnership is to develop and test a prototype model which can be used or modified by rural/small schools in their efforts for improved student learning, teacher/administrator renewal, and consequently more effective schools.

Introduction

The extent of public concern for the quality of education, including that offered in rural and small schools, is now evidenced by a stream of well publicized national reports. These reports focus on various deficiencies in public education and to the relationship between the quality of schooling and America's future. These national reports also emphasize that public education has not kept pace with changes in society; they charge that schools no longer satisfy the requirements of the work place or respond sufficiently to conditions arising from America's leadership in the world. While these reports differ in particular details, they all point down the same road: school improvement. Recognizing this concern, many states, such as Texas, have recently enacted legislation (i.e., the Educational Opportunity Act, Chapter 75 of the Texas Administrative Code, and the Long-Range Plan for Texas Public Education) to encourage, mandate and support efforts toward school improvement. Based on past experience in such endeavors, many professional educators agree that effective school improvement with lasting effects is a complex and difficult process posing many questions such as: What is exactly meant by school improvement? What are some indicators of school improvement/success? And what are some effective ways in working toward school improvement or educational excellence?

The road to effective school improvement can go in several directions according to Lieberman & Rosenholtz (1987) and will have many barriers to overcome as well as bridges to build. In fact, one media (Kerr, 1987) has already claimed that some recent attempts to reform public schooling are a failure: "The reforms, aimed at an already heavily bureaucratic and inflexible system, propose to heal the patient by administering more of what made him sick." In short, the successful reform of public schools, a complex and hierarchically organized institution, will require time, effort, planning, and unique types of collaboration by many people at the various levels of the education community. Also, it will be necessary for educators, legislators, community leaders, parents, and others to recognize three crucial factors that have inhibited school improvement efforts in the past. These are (1) promising more than can be delivered, (2) failing to deal effectively with the reality of limited resources, and (3) failing to recognize and initiate opportunities for collaboration and resource sharing (Ward & Pascarelli, 1987).

The practice of collaboration and resource sharing through partnerships or networking of agencies and individuals is a promising practice. Collaborative networks are viable and practical vehicles for developing and maintaining skilled professionals who are required by the schools and for developing school improvement efforts in a cost-effective manner. Also, research data are now available to assist in enactment of collaborative efforts focused upon school improvement (Ward & Pascarelli, 1987).

Recognizing some of the forementioned concerns, problems, criticisms, barriers, bridges to be built, potential of collaborative partnerships, and the need for effective school improvement practices in rural/small schools, several educators from a major research university and a rural/small school began discussing problems and opportunities. The purpose of this paper is to describe some of their collaborative efforts which include a network and model designed for improved student learning and teacher/administrator renewal in rural/small schools.

Background of the TTU-GISD Partnership

Institutions of higher education are also the subject of much criticism, particularly their teacher preparation programs. This is especially true in Texas where in the last session (1987) of the Texas Legislature a controversial bill (SB994) was passed mandating the restructuring of all teacher preparation programs at the university level. This legislation will have considerable impact on the teacher preparation programs at Texas Tech University. There is a concern that this legislation may in fact weaken rather than strengthen teacher education at Texas Tech University.

At the national level, an organization known as the Holmes Group has been established with the goal of improving teacher education at major research universities. The Holmes Group proposes to add more substantive requirements in teacher education including extending the time to complete the program, an extensive intern program, and the establishment of professional development schools in cooperation with local school districts. Texas Tech University has been invited to become a member of the Holmes Group and is presently considering joining this organization.

Establishing partnerships between local education agencies (LEAs) and institutions of higher education (IHEs) is not only a recommendation of the Holmes Group but is a recommendation in many reports advocating educational reform. The rationale for these partnerships is that such cooperation can assist LEAs in their efforts to have effective schools and to achieve educational excellence. As concerns IHEs, it is an opportunity to participate in addressing certain types of problems confronting public education as well as acquiring another avenue to strengthen their teacher preparation programs.

Based upon this rationale, the College of Education of Texas Tech University (Lubbock, Texas) requested and was given approval from the Board of Regents to establish a Center for Excellence in

Education. The purpose of this Center is to conduct research on the recent educational reforms mandated by the Texas Legislature. The Center is divided into units, each focusing on a specific area of research, school reform/change, or development. One of the areas of focus of the Center is the operation and problems of rural/small schools in West Texas.

A rural/small school district with certain characteristics was sought as a partner with the Center in this endeavor. Greenwood ISD appeared to meet certain desired criteria and agreed to serve as a partner. Greenwood is located 125 miles south of the Texas Tech University campus and 16 miles east of Midland, Texas. Greenwood ISD has approximately 1,250 students (K-12) and 75 faculty members.

Goal of Partnership Program

The overall goal of this partnership, or program, is to develop and test a prototype model which can be used or modified by rural/small schools in their efforts for improved student learning, teacher/administrator renewal. This model is described in detail later in this paper.

Expansion of the Partnership

During the initial planning stage for this model, it readily became apparent that collaboration of several types of "partners" was needed. The partnership was expanded and now includes: Texas Tech University, Greenwood ISD, Greenwood Parent-Teachers Club, Education Service Center--Region 18 (Midland), Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (Austin), Permian Basin of County Governments, West Texas Chamber of Commerce, and the Midland Chamber of Commerce.

Communications of the Partnership Program

It also became apparent that an effective/instant communication system was needed for certain members of the partnership. Thus, an electronic communication network was established using existing computer terminals and the "Electric Pages." This electronic mail system connects TTU, Greenwood ISD, Education Service Center--Region 18, and the Southwest Educational Developmental Laboratory. Also, instructional delivery systems using telecommunication, primarily distance learning, will be investigated.

Development of the Model

The model is being developed, through a collaborative effort by various teachers/administrators of the Greenwood ISD and faculty/administrators of Texas Tech University. The general framework for developing the TTU/GISD partnership model program is depicted in Appendix A. The model is based upon the following:

- General assumptions
- A definition of the term "school improvement"
- Identification of five areas where school improvement efforts should focus
- Problem of student learning
- Some characteristics of effective collaboration between LEAs and IHEs
- Steps relating to the school improvement process

A brief explanation/description of these factors is presented in the following paragraphs.

General Assumptions

The model is based upon the following assumptions:

- There is much potential in the use of collaborative networks as an approach for developing new programs, procedures, curricula, and personnel which are necessary for an effective resolution to the school improvement problem.
- Rural/small schools need assistance to develop and implement effective partnership strategies which will act in their capacity/ability to obtain additional resources.
- Adequate research data on effective schools and teachers are now available.
- All students can learn.
- Most students can become better learners, using resources we now have or can readily obtain.
- School reform/change is a process--not an event.
- Effective staff development is directly related to the planning and implementation of the curriculum.

- Status of teachers/administrators in rural/small schools can be enhanced.

Defining School Improvement

Solving persistent problems and increasing the capacity to attack future ones is the underlying base of school improvement (Loucks-Horsley & Hergert, 1985). For the purpose of developing this model, the term school improvement is used quite broadly to include the pursuit of any goal that benefits students and/or teachers and that has as its focus the classroom and school building. Some examples of such goals include:

- Developing and implementing a district wide math curriculum for elementary grades.
- Developing and implementing a program for improving the teaching of thinking skills (K-12).
- Implementing Edmond's "correlates of effective schools" in the secondary school.
- Upgrading the district's science curriculum to include technological advances.
- Increasing equitable treatment and opportunities for all students in a rural/small school district.

Areas of School Improvement

Based upon research on improving schools, Goodlad (1984) suggests that school improvement, either at the district or building level, should focus on five areas: school climate, school planning, staff development, curriculum and instruction, and communication. A short definition/description of these areas is as follows:

School climate. There should be evidence of active community support for the school. A continuing effort should be made to assess and improve working conditions and faculty and staff morale.

School planning. There should be an ongoing task force for school planning. The faculty should be involved in school decision-making.

Staff development. Faculty members should be involved in determining the in-service activities for their school. A campus-based program of professional growth and development for all faculty/staff members should be in operation.

Curriculum and instruction. Student-achievement data should be used to plan both for individuals and for the overall school program. A follow-up program should be in place to gather data from graduates and dropouts to help revise school programs. Programs and activities should be available to serve a wide range of student needs.

Communication. A program of public relations should be in place. There should be evidence of effective ongoing communication within the school, between the school and the home, and between the school and district office.

Problem of Student Learning

One of the problems that was constantly in the foreground in the discussion of the proposed model was that students do not learn enough in school. According to Hart (1985), for all but a few students in the public schools, the learning accomplished, at all levels, tends to be weak, fragmentary, superficial, and temporary--much of it soon forgotten after the student has "passed." Hart also claims that much evidence exists that students do not often emerge from 12 years of schools well prepared for work, training, or higher education. (This concern was addressed as a goal of the proposed program and is described later in this paper.)

Characteristics of Effective Collaboration

Recent studies provide information to assist in enactment of collaborative efforts between IHEs and LEAs focused upon school improvement. Building from this knowledge base, Ward and Pascarelli (1987) identified four characteristics of collaboration that appear to be particularly important as related to the TTU/GISD model. These are (a) parity, (b) problem focus, (c) responsibility, and (d) context-relevance. A brief description of these characteristics is presented in the following paragraphs.

Parity. Collaboration that gives all participants or partners "parity" is what is desired. That is, each partner is recognized to have certain area(s) or types of expertise and there should be opportunities for the collaboration to learn from and react to the expertise of all members of the team. Thus, parity among the members of the partnership is a desirable characteristic.

Problem focused. This characteristic pertains to the fact that it is essential that school improvement efforts focus upon resolution of problems that are school-based and are seen as important and persistent by those who will bear the brunt of resolving them.

Responsibility. Collaborative professional development and school improvement efforts are no different than other professional activities. If the work is to be done, the collaborators must assume responsibility for carrying out the required research, development, training, implementation, and evaluation activities. Some responsibilities involve challenging, growth-enhancing activities. Others are mundane tasks that must be done in order to accomplish the desired improvement.

Context-relevance. The final characteristic of effective collaboration is the context-relevance of the work that is done. More specifically, the collaboration must focus upon improvements in the actual schools and classrooms of the network participants.

Steps Relating to the School Improvement Process

In developing the TTU/GISD model, the seven steps relating to the school improvement process as suggested by Loucks-Horsley and Hergert (1985) were considered. These seven steps are:

1--Establishing the School Improvement Project
2--Assessment and Goal Setting
3--Identifying an Ideal Solution
4--Preparing for Implementation
5--Implementing
6--Review
7--Maintenance and Institutionalization

Some Goals of the Model

The overall goal of the TTU/GISD partnership, or program, is to develop and test a prototype model which can be used or modified by rural/small schools in their efforts for improve student learning, teacher/administrator renewal, and consequently more effective schools.

Some goals/components of the TTU/GISD model will include:

- Develop a framework for improving the teaching of skillful thinking throughout the curriculum.

  Example: This will include TTU specifically designing a graduate level course (workshop format) for the teachers of GISD (K-12), titled "A Framework for Improving the Teaching of Thinking Skills," and will be conducted as an off-campus resident course (3-semester hours) during the 1987 fall semester. The course outline is presented as Appendix B. Based upon the concern and desire for the improvement of skillful thinking, the GISD was invited by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) to participate in a rural/small school initiative effort that will focus on staff development to improve the teaching of thinking skills (Invitation presented as Appendix C). In the near future, it is planned that GISD will become a Demonstration School in the area of teaching skillful thinking.

- Design and provide specific types of activities for staff development.

  Example: Inservice training sessions and courses/workshops designed by TTU in response to specific needs/problems identified by the GISD. The theme of the inservice training on 24-25 Aug 87 was "Helping Students to Become Better Learners," and some of the inservice training sessions throughout the 1987-88 year will include: student/teacher learning styles, teaching styles, working with able learners, teaching the fine arts, child/adolescent development, parent involvement, and screening for dyslexia. In addition to the course pertaining to the teaching of thinking skills as previously described, another course, "Restructuring the Math Curriculum," will also be offered as an off-campus resident course during the 1987 fall semester. Two additional TTU courses will be offered on the GISD campus during the 1988 fall and 1989 spring semesters.

- Develop capacity/ability of the school district to obtain additional resources by developing proposals for external funding (including more effective use of funds available from Chapter 2, ECIA).

  Example: Provide training to selected administrators/staff in grantsmanship. This was started during the 1987 spring semester when arrangements were made for the Curriculum Director of the GISD to enroll at TTU in a Grantsmanship Workshop. Currently, several grant proposals are in the process of being submitted including one, in collaboration with TTU, under the Education for Economic Security Act, Title II (Program for Mathematics, Science and Critical Foreign Languages).

- Conduct an effective needs assessment.

  Example: Collect base-line data on student achievement tests, school climate factors (program, process, and material determinants), teaching effectiveness (learning/teaching styles and brain hemisphericity) so as to better decide what intervention would be most appropriate.

- Experiment with the use of educational technology.

  Example: Experiment with telecommunication, such as "Distant Learning," as a delivery system for inservice and off-campus courses as well as presenting certain secondary level courses for students.

- Develop indicators of educational quality appropriate for the local school district.

  Example: Classify student test data into disaggregated categories (SES) to better monitor academic progress and to determine if instructional programs are effective for all students.

- Experiment with curriculum and organizational changes.

  Example: Restructure/update the math area of the curriculum.

- Identify and develop research laboratories (classroom) for school improvement efforts.

  Example: Determine the effectiveness of certain programs/teaching strategies. Also, organize teams for action research.

- Create clinical school settings where prospective teachers can learn the best in research and practice in teaching in rural/small schools.

  Example: The assignment by TTU of certain student teachers to an effective rural/small school and provide training to teachers who will be supervising student teachers. Hopefully, GISD will be identified as one of the TTU Professional Laboratory Schools and will serve as a Demonstration School for visitors from other rural/small schools who are interested in school improvement practices.

- Assist teachers/administrators to acquire skills and knowledge to feel enpowered to act on problems that are relevant to their school and to their professional development.

  Example: Providing appropriate staff and professional development activities including assisting teachers to start working on advanced degrees. (All of the off-campus courses to be offered by TTU on the GISD campus can be counted towards the masters degree.)

Some Politics and Successes in Developing the Model

Politics Involved in Change

As we go about solving problems in our schools, we seldom think of forming a network or coalition of partnerships outside our own environment. Even more dramatic is the idea that a variety of institutions and people could coalesce for change. This partnership will provide necessary support, human and financial resources, and technical and research help which will bring better and more equitable education to children. The network will allow all the participants to do the things that they could otherwise not do.

Each partner will face institutional politics which will need addressing if the support system is to take place. As these different groups join, their reasons for participating, their perspectives, and their different contributions and rewards need consideration and recognition.

The initiators of the project must develop a support system. The extent to which these people can give and receive support will depend upon the seriousness with which school trustees, the superintendent, and the principals undertake the project. They must realize that the idea of sponsorship, university, school, and business collaboration, is a powerful vehicle for school improvement.

Small rural school systems are often the community rather than a separate institution, so the local school board provides the grass roots leadership. Recent reports on public education state that many initiatives are being taken with little or no attention by the local school board. Despite all the interest in "partnerships" between the business sector and education, serious roadblocks to raising student achievement, improving staffs, and elevating standards can occur if school boards lack information and are not involved. School board membership is the highest form of public service and is the only means through which the community expresses itself concerning education. The important role of the board leader is that of facilitator and is critical to building consensus.

It is important that board members, the superintendent and the staff understand the information, clarify it and develop guidelines. Reforms or change cannot occur without local involvement and "ownership." Business, civic, and community interest must be sustained through involvement.

Recent reports suggest that the community likes its board involved and they want the board to encourage parent involvement in the school as well. Parent involvement enables children to achieve better and learn more. The ancient Chinese proverb, "One parent is worth a thousand teachers," illustrates what research confirms..the family influences the learning of the child. The participation of parents in the education of their children provides a bottom-up foundation of support and commitment.

The politics of change involve awareness and acceptance from all the participants. Each of these partners have political nuances that require information. Other institutions which are affected, such as the coordinating board, other universities with overlapping territories, other local school systems, junior colleges, the Education Service Center, educational laboratories, local chambers of commerce and various community agencies will want to make their operating politics known. Each time a change takes place between the institutions, a follow-up session is needed with the participants. Communication for awareness and acceptance can and must take many forms. These forms include visitations, dialogues, meetings, workshops, letters, news articles, orientations, and in-service. This process is recycled and modified throughout the awareness and acceptance stage.

Successes

Participation, continued support, rewards and resources and the excitement of becoming more competent are all part of the needed conditions of improvement. The successful outcomes of the partnership and the development of a model for rural/small schools for improved student learning and teacher/administrator renewal which will lead to more effective schools is yet unknown. The combination of inputs from the partners can provide insight into new legislation and current trends and research that should assist rural/small schools in how school improvement can be orchestrated. Because schools are complex organizations, research on how improvement takes place through the collaborative effort should provide insight and strategies for rural/small schools that will be a beneficial aspect of such a partnership.

To suggest that this effort will be successful would be presumptuous at this time. However, where there is the possibility for involvement, experience and participation, growth is possible. Where ideas cannot be translated into practical realities, there are lectures better left undelivered. The jury will be out for some time.

School improvement takes time and hard work, and may not be cost-effective. Ideally, careful planning which results in early success will legitimatize the project and make it a standard operating procedure. When a school has strong leadership, committed staff, and support from the community, it is ready to make improvements.

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APPENDIXES

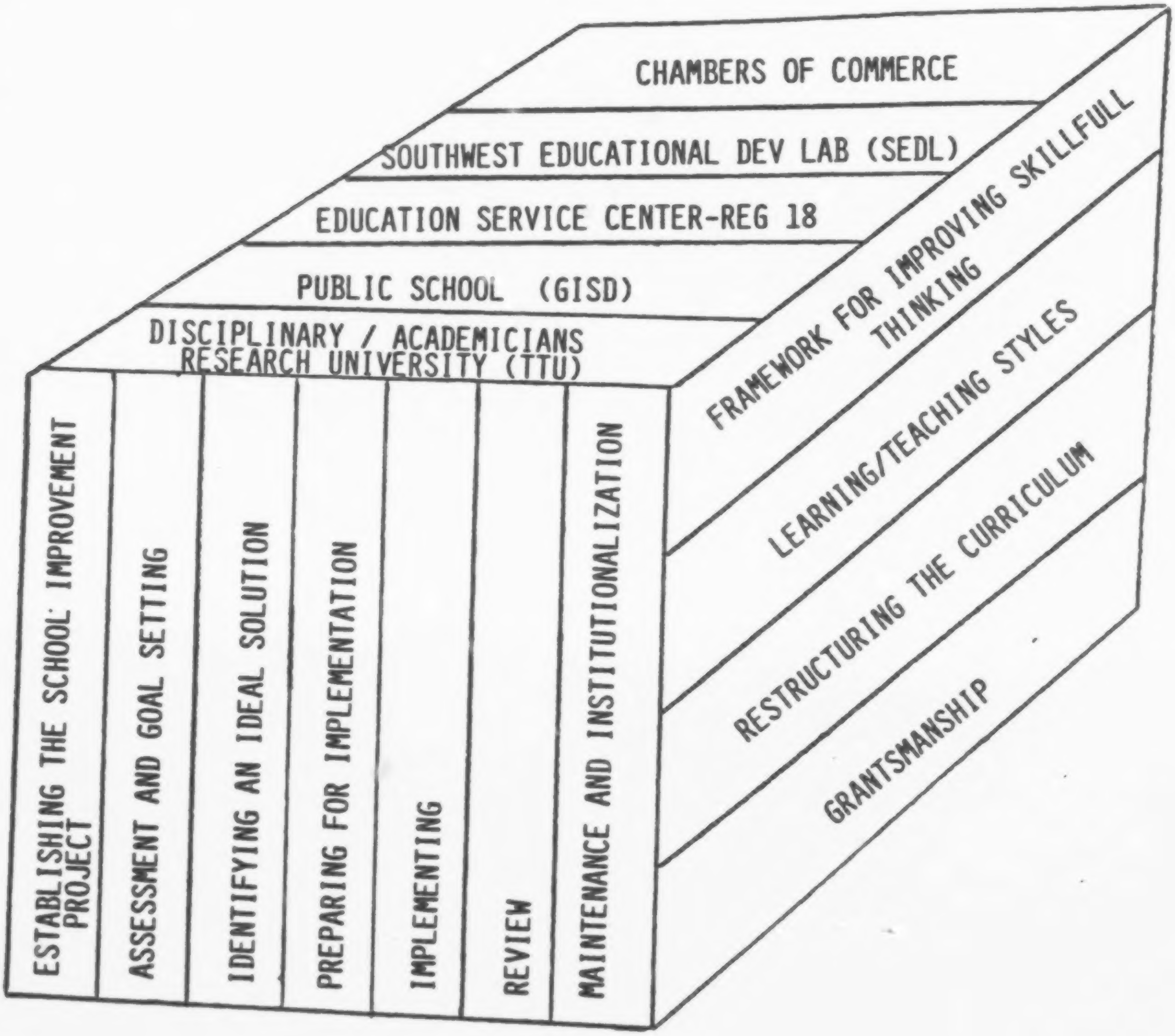
A - Framework for Developing the TTU/GISD Partnership Model

B - Framework for Improving the Teaching of Thinking Skills

C - Letter of Invitation from SEDL

Appendix A

FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPING THE TTU/GISD PARTNERSHIP MODEL PROGRAM


CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE
SOUTHWEST EDUCATIONAL DEV LAB (SEDL)
EDUCATION SERVICE CENTER-REG 18
PUBLIC SCHOOL (GISD)
DISCIPLINARY / ACADEMICIANS RESEARCH UNIVERSITY (TTU)
ESTABLISHING THE SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT PROJECT
ASSESSMENT AND GOAL SETTING
IDENTIFYING AN IDEAL SOLUTION
PREPARING FOR IMPLEMENTATION
IMPLEMENTING
REVIEW
MAINTENANCE AND INSTITUTIONALIZATION
FRAMEWORK FOR IMPROVING SKILLFULL THINKING
LEARNING/TEACHING STYLES
RESTRUCTURING THE CURRICULUM
GRANTSMANSHIP

A FRAMEWORK FOR IMPROVING THE TEACHING OF THINKING SKILLS

Workshop Description

Schools are beginning to use programs and materials especially designed to teach various aspects of thinking - the thinking skills movement, but full development of student thinking abilities depend on methods used regularly by teachers at all levels. This workshop is designed for administrators/teachers who are intereted in becoming more aware of the thinking skills movement and in developing and nurturing the growth of intelligent behavior in their students. The workshop will focus on: the biological basis of thinking (left/right brain research findings); the need to teach students to think; creating school conditions for skillful thinking; teaching for thinking; teaching of and about thinking; and some mental tactics for improving the teaching of thinking skills.

Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to:

1. Describe some recent research findings concerning the biological basis of thinking (left/right brain research findings).
2. Describe the thinking skills movement including a rationale for the need to improve the teaching of skillful thinking.
3. Identify some qualities of skillful thinkers and conditions that develop them.
4. Identify and describe various approaches to teaching of, for, and about thinking.
5. Define some generic terminology relating to the teaching of skillful thinking including: basic thinking processes, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, and creative thinking.
6. Judge and incorporate various strategies for teaching thinking skills throughout the curriculum.

Topic Outline

I. Introduction
  A. Workshop Participants
  B. Overview of Workshop

II. Some Biological Bases for Thinking

   A. Biological Structure and Thinking

   B. The Split-Brain Theory

   C. Brain Hemispheric Dominance

   D. Implications for Teaching

III. Issues in Teaching Thinking (Videotape #1)

   A. Some Issues Related to Teaching Thinking in the Schools.

   B. Why Teach Thinking: A Statement of Rationale (pp. 1-4*)

IV. The Skillful Thinker (Videotape #2)

   A. Some Common Types of Thinking

   B. Good Thinking vs. Poor Thinking

   C. The Good Thinker (pp. 5-9*)

V. Teaching For Thinking (Videotape #3)

   A. Teacher Behaviors That Enable Student Thinking (pp. 11-23*)

   B. Teaching Regular Academic Content So Students Are Expected To Think

   C. Creating Classroom Conditions In Which Students Can Think

   D. Thinking Through Productive Interaction

      1. Teacher-student interaction (recitation and discussion)
      2. Student-student interaction (cooperative learning)

   E. Thoughtful Discussion Requires Good Questioning Techniques

VI. Teaching Of And About Thinking (Viedotape #4)

   A. Teaching For, Of, and About Thinking (pp. 25-28*)

   B. Teaching Of Thinking

      1. Teaching students cognitive skills
      2. Mediation-patient, encouraging interaction
      3. Process for introducing thinking skills
         a. Define the skill
         b. Explain the skill
         c. Model or demonstrate the skill

---

*Handout - "Teaching Skillful Thinking"

C. Teaching About Thinking

1. Helping students be aware of their thinking processes; developing more conscious control over their thinking (metacognition)
2. Metacognitive strategies
   a. Predicting
   b. Questioning
   c. Summarizing
   d. Clarifying

VII. Thinking Skills: Meanings and Models (pp. 29-34*)

A. Essential Thinking Skills

1. Bloom's taxonomy
2. Guilford's structure of intellect

B. Basic Thinking Processes

1. Causation
2. Transformation
3. Relationships
4. Classifications
5. Qualifications

C. Complex Thinking Processes

1. Problem solving
2. Decision making
3. Critical thinking
4. Creative thinking

VIII. Some Mental Tactics For Teaching Thinking Skills (Videotapes 1-22)

A. Learning-To-Learn Skills

1. Attention control
2. Deep processing
3. Memory frameworks
4. Power thinking
5. Goal setting
6. The responsibility frame

B. Content Thinking Skills

7. Concept attainment
8. Concept development
9. Pattern recognition
10. Macro-pattern recognition
11. Synthesizing
12. Proceduralizing

---

*Handout - "Teaching Skillful Thinking"

C. Reasoning-Skills

13. Analogical reasoning
14. Extrapolation
15. Evaluation of evidence
16. Examination of value
17. Decision making
18. Non-linguistic patterns
19. Elaboration
20. Solving everyday problems
21. Solving academic problems
22. Invention

IX. Summary and Evaluation

A. Summary of Workshop

B. Final Comprehensive Examination

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Workshop Presentor

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Professor and Associate Dean
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Texas Tech University
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SEDL
SOUTHWEST EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT LABORATORY
211 East Seventh Street Austin, Texas 78701 512/476-6861

July 22, 1987

Mr. Samuel C. Martin II
Superintendent
Greenwood ISD
Rt. 1, Box 143 D
Midland, TX 79701

Dear Mr. Martin:

The Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) invites the Greenwood district to participate in a rural, small school initiative effort that will focus on staff development to improve the teaching of thinking skills. Using proven methods, this effort will enlist the cooperation of the State Department of Education, intermediaries (ESC's, Coops, etc.), and institutions of higher learning to provide training and technical assistance to participating schools.

SEDL will develop and provide training for the trainers who will be working with your school(s), drawing from and using the experience, expertise, and research of experts in the area of thinking skills. The expense of the trainers, the materials that they will use, and the materials that your school(s) will need for the training will be paid for by SEDL. Other services related to the project will be:

- access to SEDL project staff for liason and information about related resources
- quarterly publications about the effort and related issues.

Your school district was recommended to SEDL for participation in the project in collaboration with the State Department of Education, intermediaries, and/or others. If your district is committed to thinking skills process/program implementation, then we believe that this effort can be of significant benefit. In order to accept this invitation your school district will need to meet several criteria:

- make a commitment to participate for the upcoming school year (1987-88)
- provide release time for teachers once a month from October 1, 1987 through March 31, 1988 for 2 to 4 hours of inservice
- allow access to teachers during school hours on campus periodically for technical assistance and data review (as per a mutually arranged schedule)
- provide support to teachers and trainers with services and facilities necessary for inservice training/follow-up
- provide access to sources of data on project activities and school practices

The Rural Small Schools Initiative staff at SEDL, under the general direction of Drs. Martha L. Smith and David L. Williams, Jr., will be coordinated on a day-to-day basis by Mrs. Gayla H. Lawson. They, and all of the other SEDL staff who will work on this project, are very enthusiastic about the opportunity to work with you and your district during the coming year.

Your letter of acceptance is eagerly awaited. There will be only ten school districts accepted in Texas, so we urge you to respond immediately if you wish to participate. We look forward to a long and mutually productive relationship with the Greenwood Schools.

If you should have questions or concerns about the project, please feel free to call Mrs. Lawson at (512) 476-6861.

Sincerely,

Preston C. Kronkosky

Preston C. Kronkosky
Executive Director

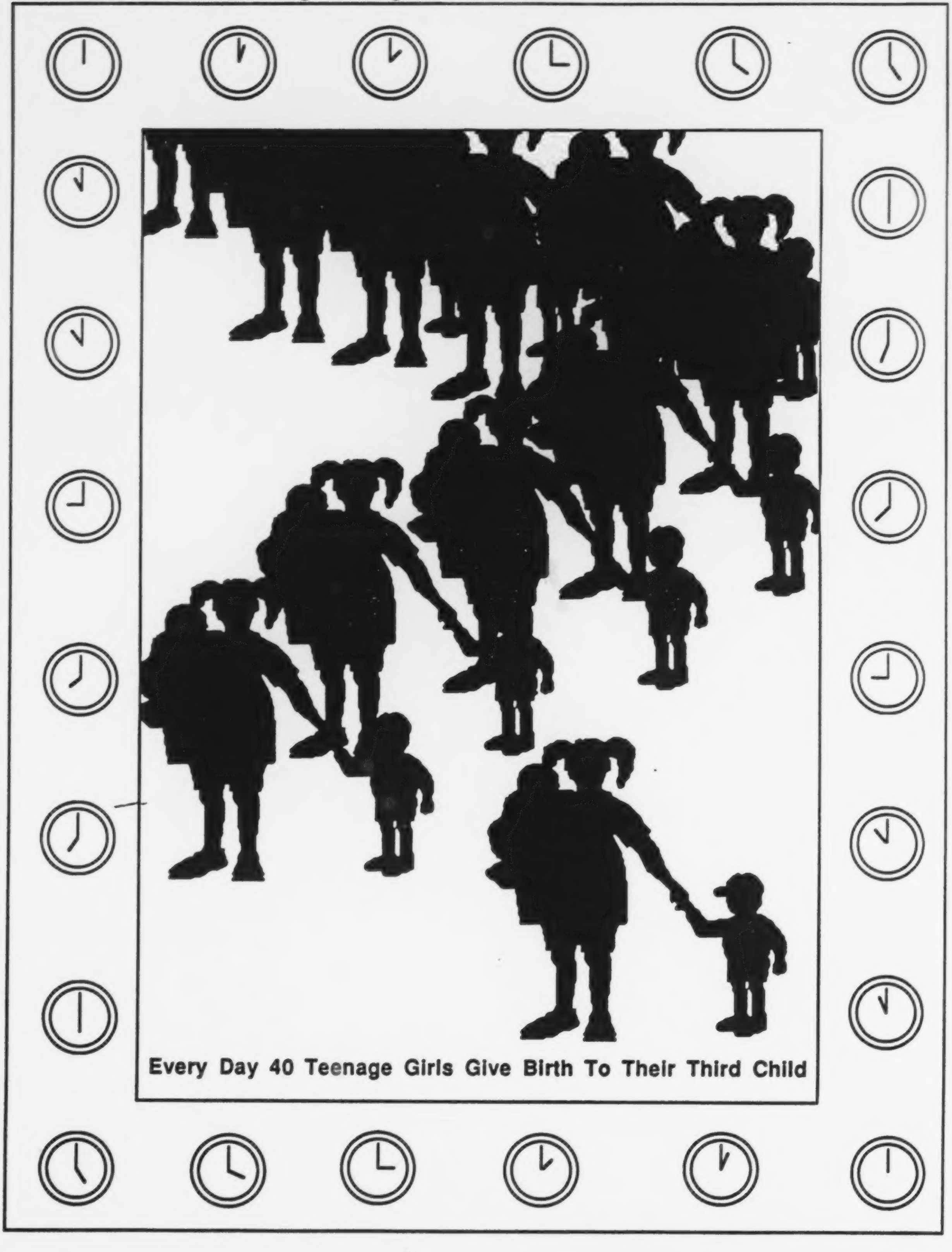
PCK/jdm

cc: Mr. Lynn Moak (TEA)
Executive Director Regional ESC
Dr. Martha L. Smith
Dr. David L. Williams, Jr.
Mrs. Gayla H. Lawson

Ms. Nancy Driscoll, Partner
Ms. Marcelle Thomas, Partner
Dr. Theresa Hayes, Consultant
Dr. Tom Houlihan, Superintendent
Granville County Schools
101 Delacroix Street
Oxford, NC 27565

Intervention With Youth At-Youth: Process Versus Program

Just one of the frightening statistics of children at risk.....



Every Day 40 Teenage Girls Give Birth To Their Third Child

WHAT EPDS IS...........

- An educational consulting group whose members have a broad background in the education of children, especially those who are at risk for academic failure. Our consultant's expertise includes exceptional children, school psychology, language and racial minority student learning needs, pre-school programs including those for the handicapped, and teacher education. We are educators, in private business, who care about kids.

WHAT EPDS PROPOSES...........

- A process approach to assessment and intervention, not just a band aid, but an entire system built upon student needs and depending on collaborative efforts and resource development.

WHAT EPDS WILL DO..............

- Plan and coordinate a national conference on children at risk
- Prepare training programs for preservice and inservice educators and other service providers on understanding and working with at risk youth
- Prepare and disseminate media to increase public awareness of the issue
- Design a computerized data management system to monitor relevant student data and indicate early intervention targets
- Develop a program evaluation and dissemination effort for intervention projects
- Design and produce educational meterials to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse school age population

THE PROCESS

DEFINING INTELLIGENCE AND ACHIEVEMENT...........

INTELLIGENCE

IS THE ABILITY TO USE AND PROCESS INFORMATION FROM THE ENVIRONMENT

AND WHEN APPLIED TO AN
ACADEMIC SETTING
IS
ACHIEVEMENT

TO ASSESS SOURCES OF RISK...............

LOW ABILITY ? ↓

- MENTAL HANDICAPS

PROCESSING PROBLEMS ? ↓

- LEARNING DISABILITIES
- BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS
- EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS
- PHYSICAL HANDICAPS/HEALTH
- LEARNING STYLE DIFFERENCES
- SUBSTANCE ABUSE
- LOW MOTIVATION
- " CULTURAL CONFLICT"
- FAMILY STRESSES

LACK OF ADEQUATE INFORMATION? ↓

- POOR ATTENDANCE
- LOW EXPECTATIONS
- LANGUAGE BARRIER
- ECONOMIC DISADVANTAGE

AND DETERMINE WHERE AND HOW TO INTERVENE..............

QUESTION 1

What is the source of the risk..............
Ability level, processing difficulties, or availability of information?

QUESTION 2

WHERE IS INTERVENTION NEEDED ....student, school, home, community?

QUESTION 3

WHO SHOULD INTERVENE........school, social service, community group, court system, parents, mental health?

QUESTION 4

WHAT SHOULD THE INTERVENTION BE....pre school program, staff development for teachers, family counseling, special education, individual counseling, community action ?

Dr. Grace Nunn
Department of Elementary and
Junior High School Education
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, Illinois 61920

Dr. Judith Ivarie
Department of Special Education
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, Illinois 61920

Collaborative Consultation: A Means for Problem Solving in Education with Special Application in Rural and Small School Settings

Collaborative Consultation is an empirically based model developed by Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb and Nevin (1986) for the purpose of facilitating comprehensive and effective programs for students with special needs within the least restrictive environment. It is described as "an interactive process that enables people with diverse expertise to generate creative solutions to mutually defined problems. The outcome is enhanced, altered, and produces solutions that are different from those that the individual team members would produce independently." (p.1) Collaborative Consultation is applicable in K-12 settings and also in higher education. It encompasses skills and techniques which promote clear communication and increased sharing of materials and human resources. The Collaborative Consultation process is especially advantageous in rural and small schools which operate on a tight budget. This process allows currently employed personnel to maximize their effectiveness in meeting the needs of learners without necessarily changing the existing curriculum. Furthermore, it facilitates interaction with other community agencies and parents. Collaborative Consultation uses a student-centered approach wherein instructional services are based on academic and social learning needs rather than on categories of exceptionality. In the words of Idol et al., "The referred students benefit by receiving systematic instruction for academic or social problems in the least restrictive environment. Teachers and parents receive the benefits of direct assistance. Finally, administrators benefit from a more cost-effective model of special services as well as from access to quantifiable records that document the results of consultations showing pupil progress." (p.3)

The process of Collaborative Consultation is based on a triadic model described by Tharp (1979), the components of which are: (1) the consultant, (2) the mediator, and (3) the target. The consultant is an individual with specialized knowledge or skills, and the mediator is typically the classroom teacher who is familiar with the student's performance in the grade-level curriculum. However, in varying situations, these two roles may involve general educators, special educators, speech therapists, aides, principals, parents, physicians, and so forth. The consultant and the mediator share responsibility for instructional decisions concerning the target, the student who has an academic and/or social problem. In the triadic model, there is no hierarchical structure. Rather, the working relationship between the consultant and the mediator is built upon parity and equality. The most important outcome of successful collaboration is the increased ability of the mediator to meet the needs of the learner.

Effective consultation is dependent upon four generic principles of collaboration. A brief explanation of each will follow.

1. Collaborative Consultation requires team ownership of the identified problem (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 5). The consultant and

the mediator are accountable for the identification and the solution of the target's problem; thus, they share in all successes or failures. This is in contrast to a "top-down" situation wherein an "expert" assists another individual with "his" or "her" problem. Team ownership requires parity which is manifested by the blending of skills and knowledge possessed by both the consultant and the mediator. It also requires equality wherein team members listen to, respect, and learn from each other.

2. Implementing change involves recognition of individual differences in developmental progress (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 6). The teaming experience offers the consultant and the mediator the opportunity to develop new skills and competencies on an individual basis. Inevitably, there will be differences in rate of change, feelings, and reactions. It is important for team members to be cognizant of this and to respond supportively.

3. Application of reinforcement principles and practices results in improved skills, knowledge, and attitudes for all members of the team (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 8). When the consultant and the mediator regularly apply reinforcement principles to augment the academic and social progress of the student, they begin to incorporate these behaviors into their own interactions; thus, they learn new skills through the process of "catching one another being good." Classroom teachers need to become aware that they can effect beneficial changes in exceptional students. A proven way of doing this is for them to become: (a) instructional determinists (by specifying exactly which learning outcomes they intend their students to acquire), (b) instructional environmentalists (by specifying how they intend to reach those outcomes), and (c) instructional empiricists (by measuring whether or not their students

actually acquire those outcomes).

4. Collaborative Consultation involves making data-based decisions through a functional analysis of behaviors (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 9). The student's behavior and the educational environment are studied carefully to determine precise strengths and needs. The implementation of such a decision making process involves the following steps: (a) determining exactly what the target learner and/or the mediator/consultee can do before intervention; (b) publicly specifying the intended outcomes of the intervention; (c) developing, implementing, and evaluating special materials; (d) identifying the small steps required for complex tasks; and (e) identifying events that serve to accelerate the progress of both the mediator and the target (p. 10).

In addition to the four generic principles of collaboration just described, there are six principles of consultation which relate to specific strategies and techniques. The purpose of developing these consultation skills is to accomplish the task of solving the learner's problems while maintaining the interpersonal/professional relationships of the team members. A brief description of the six principles of consultation follows.

1. Situational leadership guides the implementation of Collaborative Consultation (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 11). Situational leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) requires that team members be flexible in their attempt to influence each other based on current competency levels and attitude levels of other team members. For example, if a teacher lacks the specific set of skills required to conduct a curriculum-based assessment procedure, the consultant would take a directive role in the implementation

of that task. Conversely, if a teacher is highly motivated to engage in the curriculum-based procedure, the consultant would take a less directive, more supportive role in the implementation.

2. Cooperative goal structures underlie conflict resolution through Collaborative Consultation (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 14). This principle is based on the premise that conflict can be productive if managed properly. In fact, conflict is seen as leading to new, more creative solutions than untried consenses. Johnson and Johnson (1978) have identified five alternatives from which to select when conflict arises: withdrawing, forcing, smoothing, compromising, and confronting. The appropriate selection of alternatives can foster conflict solution in the consultation process.

3. The Collaborative Consultation process relies on people who use appropriate interview skills (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 15). Effective consultation requires that each team member develop interskills that facilitate the obtaining of information for use in problem-identification, problem-solving, program implementation, and evaluation. These interview skills are critical both within and outside of the team. For example, parents have valuable information regarding the educational and behavioral needs of their child. A skilled interviewer will direct the oral exchange with the parent in a manner which allows for the obtaining of accurate information within a context allowing the parent to express emotions and personal needs.

4. Active listening facilitates meaningful interactions from all participants (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 17). Active listening refers to a set of specific behaviors that facilitate the communication between individuals (Gordon, 1980). Generally,

these behaviors relate to verbal and non-verbal responses that encourage the speaker to continue speaking behavior in an appropriate manner. The Collaborative Consultation process is facilitated by team members who possess active listening skills. Active listening provides feedback to the speaker that his message is both understood and valued. Additionally, active listening provides an opportunity to refine the message for greater clarity.

5. Oral and written communication must rely on common non-jargon language (Idol, et al., 1986, p. 17). The purpose of Collaborative Consultation as stated earlier is to use the diverse expertise of individuals from various professional areas to meet the educational needs of the student. Each professional has developed specialized vocabulary that facilitates communication within his or her respective group. However, it often prohibits or impedes communication between groups. It is to the advantage of all concerned to avoid "jargon" which interferes with the ability of others in the group to comprehend totally what is being said.

6. Positive non-verbal language is required to implement Collaborative consultation (Idol et al., 1986, p. 19). The old adage "Your actions speak so loudly that I can't hear what you are saying," describes the role of non-verbal language in the communication process. Non-verbal language includes considerations such as proximity, body positioning, gestures, eye contact, and smiling. All of these non-verbal behaviors send either positive, negative, or neutral messages. The effective Collaborative Consultation team acknowledges the importance of non-verbal behavior and uses it to advantage in meeting the needs of the learner.

Summary

Collaborative Consultation is a problem solving process which enables school personnel to maximize expertise in facilitating not only the education of children with special needs, but all learners in the system. This paper has described a specific model developed by Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin (1986) which is highly adaptable to a variety of educational settings.

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A Rare Collaboration: Urban and Rural Teachers Together in a Very Special Course

ABSTRACT

A Rare Collaboration:
Urban and Rural Teaching Together in a Very Special Course

There is an old saying that "Anchorage is an hour's drive or a half hour plane flight from Alaska!" Alaska is primarily a rural state of vast isolated villages with a population distribution that places more than half of the state's 500,000 people in the greater Anchorage area. Rural travel is prohibitively expensive for individuals and misconceptions about rural Alaska abound. Lack of understanding between urban and rural teachers reduces professional communication and frequently inhibits instate teacher recruitment.

Because the special education program is a statewide program, we are dedicated to improving communication between urban and rural practitioners. To this end we require a three credit course on Rural Special Education. of both elementary and secondary special education minors and graduate majors. This course offers urban and rural students the opportunity to not only gain the basic competencies of a rural special education teacher, but directly links local Anchorage teachers/students with their counterparts in all parts of the state. Collaboration and sharing is a major outcome of the course which is concurrently presented on-campus and off-campus via telecommunication to rural and remote locations from the North Slope to the Bering Sea to the Aleutian Chain to the borders of British Columbia.

Participants in this presentation will have the opportunity to share the contents of this course, the unique procedures for building collaborative relationships via telecommunications and the unusual distance delivery components which characterize the Alaskan model. The information presented will have relevence to teacher training for other rural areas and will be appropriate content for those addressing needs of teachers in small public and private school teachers in other locales.

Timothy Halnon
U.S. Department of Education
519 Reporters Building
400 Maryland Ave. S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202-5516

ABSTRACT

"Indian Vocational Education: Creative Programming in Remote Areas"

Native Americans have the highest unemployment and lowest educational attainment rates of any group in the U.S. Problems of extreme isolation, poor communication, transportation, poverty, lack of employment and limited resources are worse than in other areas of Rural America. In addition, many Indian students have limited English proficiency.

Despite these obstacles, several Indian vocational education programs, funded under the Perkins Vocational Education Act, have pooled existing resources, services and programs in unique ways to provide comprehensive effective programs of vocational education. Placement rates for program completers approach 100 percent. Project staff have shown great creativity in meeting demographic and attitudinal challenges.

This presentation will offer a multi-media look at ways in which either two (1 hour) or three (1 1/2 hours) model rural Indian programs have used collaborative techniques to develop strong educational programs. We propose to show a slide/tape presentation from Bay Mills Indian Community (Michigan) and a video tape from Oglala Lakota College (South Dakota). If a 1 1/2 hour presentation is approved, I will also show a video tape from Salish Kootenai Community College (Montana). All of these presentations are professionally done and very interesting. They have been well received in presentations before the American Vocational Association and the National Indian Education Association. I will distribute and describe a large packet of "how to" materials produced under an ED contract designed to help small schools develop quality vocational education programs. Finally, I will describe ways in which rural secondary and postsecondary schools can participate in this program to provide vocational, basic and related education to Native Americans.

The presentation is not simply a "show and tell" but offers rural and small schools valuable materials and ideas to use in linking education and economic development activities, determining student and labor market needs, improving placement and organizing resources.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1987

11:10 - 12:10 PM

Presenter: Lance Huffman
American School Counselor Assolcation
41 Fountain Place
Manitou Springs, Colorado

IS THERE ROOM FOR HI-TECH IN THE SMALL AND RURAL SCHOOL HOUSE?

INTRODUCTION

This question has a great deal of importance for the administrator and counselor in the small and rural school setting. With the limited resources and small staffs found in many small and rural schools, the educational leader must feel with a high degree of confidence, that the time, energy and resources necessary to computerize an educational task will provide an improvement to the service provided to the student and the school program. Even in this era of High-Tech strategies, many tasks required of a school program are performed with more efficiency without the aid of the computer. Once the decision to computerize a task has been made, the decision maker will need to select a hardware and software solution which has been tried and proven successfully.

The focus of this presentation will be two fold. First is to present those issues which should be addressed before the educational leader makes the decision to computerize an educational task. In conjunction with the list of issues which need to be considered will be a description of educational tasks that have been successfully computerized in other small and rural school settings throughout the United States.

The second component of the presentation will be a review of specific software programs which are currently in use and have proven to be efficient in the small school setting. Written reviews of a number of software packages will be provided to the participants along with a description and discussion of several new software products which may be useful to the educational leader.

One controversial software program, the LOR System (Letters of Recommendation), developed by the presenters, will be demonstrated to the participants. The LOR System is a computerized system of creating letters of recommendation for the secondary student who is seeking assistance in college admissions of scholarship consideration. The system was created to by used on the Apple family of computers.

THE COMPUTERIZED TASK

The first step in deciding if an educational task can be and should be computerized is to analyze the task. The answers to the following questions can assist in making the decision.

1. How has the task been completed in the past?
2. How much time was necessary to complete the task using past methods?
3. Were the results satisfactory, or was there a large lot of room for improvement?
4. Who will see the results of the completed task and is their opinion and evaluation of the work important to the educator ?
5. Has the task been computerized by a software developer?
6. Who has used the commercialized product and are they pleased with the results?
7. Will the task need to be repeated often enough to justify the time and effort necessary to computerize the task?
8. If the task has not been computerized, can the educator develop a system using generic software or will a program need to be written to complete the task?
9. If data entry is necessary, who will perform the work?

10. Does the educator have access to the hardware to perform the task?
11. Who can assist the educator with technical questions about computerizing the task?

While the answers to these eleven questions may only serve to generate many more questions, they will force the individual to give much needed thought before undertaking the work of computerizing an educational task.

The answer to question 5 will no doubt require the most amount of time for the educator. A system for identifiying available software can be extremely helpful and time saving for the educator interested in computerizing a task. One source for identifying software is a three volume directory published by the Santa Clara County Office of Education entitled The Guidance and Counseling Directory of Microcomputer Software: Volume I: The Job/College Directory, Volume II: The Counseling Directory, Volume III: The Administrative Systems/Programs Directory. The full set sells for approximately $21.00 and can be ordered from: Santa Clara County Office of Education, C/VEG Publications, 100 Skyport Drive, Mode Code 236, San Jose, CA, 95115, (408-947-6756).

THE SOFTWARE REVIEW PROCESS

As education continues to move towards increased usage of computer technology to deliver services to students, parents, and staff, the need for an organized system of reviewing software has also increased. The educator is flooded with promotional materials from software venders promising software solutions. If an individual purchases and implements software programs solely on the basis of promotional materials provided by software developers, costly mistakes will be made. The educator who is considering the incorporation of a software program will need to commit time to reviewing the software if a wise decision is to be made.

Ideally the task of reviewing a software program is one that can require many hours of work and often the cooperation of many individuals. It is estimated that there are as many as 150 questions and issues which must be addressed in a comprehensive review of software. The purpose of the following review form is to provide the educator a method of reviewing software quickly without investing long periods of time before a decision can be made to buy the program and/or use the program with students.

The motivation for developing this instrument is based on the belief that educators are unable and/or unwilling to spend the necessary time to review software in a comprehensive manner but do have a need for a review form that will quickly provide answers to relevant questions. The individual using this review form will need to use caution and accept the limitations of the form in making decisions from the results, especially with programs to be used with students.

At the end of this review form is a list of terms and statements which reflect areas that may need to be addressed before decisions can be made about the purchase or the usage of a software program but have not been included in the review form. The educator using this form is encouraged to study the list before a final decision is made in order to consider additional issues.

Software Review Form

Program Title:______________________________
Distributor:_______________________________
Address:__________________________________
City:_______________ State:_____ Zip:_____
Phone:(___)___________

Cost:____
Hardware Requirements:________________________________

Program Application:
___ Administration/Student Records
___ Career/Vocational Planning
___ Personal/Social Counseling
___ Testing/Assessment/Test Preparation
___ Educational Planning/Academic Counseling

===

What are the objectives of the program?

1. ____

2. ____

3. ____

===

In answering the following questions, use one of the responses listed below:
1. Yes 2. Somewhat 3. No 4. NA (Not Apply) 5. U (Unavailable)

In answering the following questions, it is important to have both the program and the printed documentation available.

1. Objectives are clearly stated for the user. ___
2. The philosophy/theoretical orientation of the program is acceptable.___
3. Program motivates the user to achieve the objectives. ___
4. Presentation of content is clear and logical. ___
5. Level of difficulty is appropriate for intended user ___
6. Reading level is appropriate for intended user.___
7. Program is free of technical problems.___
8. Program allows user to progress quickly.___
9. Instructions are clear and easy to follow.___
10. User can use the program with minimal assistance.___
11. User can control the pace of the program.___
12. User can easily change activities within the program.___
13. User can back up and/or change answers easily.
14. Responses are easy for user to find.___
15. Help and/or hint options are available.___
16. User can enter and exit the program as desired.___
17. The necessary hardware and peripherals are clearly designated.___
18. Feedback is immediate and nonthreatening.___
19. Program helps user understand results.___
20. Printouts are clear and easy to understand.___
21. Program is free of spelling and grammatical errors.___
22. Program is free of Race, Ethnic, Sex and other stereotypes.___
23. User manual is easy to understand.___
24. User manual is accurate.___
25. A manual is available and easy to understand.___
26. The manual is accurate.___
27. Follow-up activities are suggested.___
28. Program has an acceptable Back-Up policy.___
29. Program has an acceptable Update policy.___
30. Program makes effective use of graphics, color, and sound.___

ADDITIONAL SOFTWARE ISSUES

1. Recommended level of usage

2. Bilingual versions
3. Disabled Students
4. Copy Protected
5. Program Enhancements Available
6. Future storage requirements
7. Peripheral Equipment recommended
8. Provision for inservice
9. Field-test data available
10. Modification of program available
11. Technical support available
12. Clarity of screen displays
13. Time necessary for usage
14. Group performance results available
15. Counseling intervention strategies available
16. Suggestions for program integration
17. Tutorial available
18. Sample data bases
19. Right answers are provided
20. Branch/Loop ability of program
21. Test bank available
22. Reinforcement is varied
23. Compatibility with other programs
24. Classroom/group package
25. Return policy

SOFTWARE REVIEWS

The following software reviews are provided here to reflect two software prorams that have been successfully incorporated into the small and rural school setting. In reviewing each software program, a brief description of the program has been provided, plus an evaluation of 5 areas.
These are:

1. Ease of Learning
2. Ease of Use
3. Documentation
4. Support
5. Overall

After each area, a number of 1 through 5 has been given. The number 1 reflects a software program that in the reviewer's opinion is very poor in this area and should not be considered for purchase. The number 3 reflects a system that may have merit for a small or rural school and deserves further investigation. A number 5 reflects a program that the reviewer has found to be exceptional, and would purchase. The last part of the review will be a personal reaction to the software program by the reviewer. The reader and software/hardware developers will need to appreciate the fact that these opinions are a single perception of a program and may not reflect the total potential value of the system.

IMPROVING COLLEGE ADMISSION TEST SCORES--ACT

Reveiw Written By: George Hart
Counselor
Wasson High School
Colorado Springs, CO

By: Jay Comras and Shirley Kung

Published By: NASSP
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091

May Be Used On: Apple II+, IIe, IIc
1 or 2 Drives

May Be Purchased From: NASSP
1904 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091
Telephone: 703-860-0200

Cost:

Item Number	Description	Price
8968501	ACT Set of 16 Computer Disks for Apple	$320.00
8918501	ACT Set of 4 Student Workbooks (Math, Science, Social Studies, English)	14.00
8908502	ACT Math Teacher's Manual	5.00
8908504	ACT Science Teacher's Manual	5.00
8908506	ACT Social Studies Teacher's Manual	5.00
8908508	ACT English Teacher's Manual	5.00

Copy Protected / Special licensing arrangements can be made for networking and/or securing unlocked disks with duplicating rights.

Evaluation :

Ease of Learning	4+
Ease of Use	5
Documentation	5
Support	4+
Overall	4+

NASSP, under the direction of Jay Comras, has put together an exciting computer study program that helps students to refresh basic skills and to review test-taking strategies.

The computer study programs are well-designed and different from others on the market. In each of the four test areas--Math, Science, English and Social Studies--you are given five disks. Practice Tests 1 and 2 are included on the first two disks, followed by two disks containing skillbuilders. Then, the last disk contains a management program that can be used to store or retrieve the performance of many students.

The tests may be taken in one of two modes:

a. A tutorial mode that provides an immediate response of helpful hints, test taking strategies and explanations. In this mode, students receive a second-try option and are guided through the decision-making process. The student's performance is untimed in this mode.

b. A test mode that shows the answers only when students complete the test. In this mode, performance is timed. (A unique system has been included to help a student keep track of the time.)

After taking one of the practice tests, a student may select to have his performance analyzed in each principal subdivision of the test. Then the student may use the results to determine those skill areas that need strengthening. At this point the student selects those skill builders on disks 3 and 4 that will help him/her improve his areas of weakness. Then the student can return to the remaining practice test, take it in the test mode, and get an indication of what score he/she would receive on the ACT.

Besides the disks, this program includes four teacher's manuals and four student manuals for each of the subtests of the ACT. These are well-written and coordinated with the disks. These additions really help to supplement the total program. They include general information about the ACT, information on test-taking skills, approaches to efficient reading in the different areas, practice tests and skill builders.

Overall, this is an excellent program that I would like to have in my counseling center. It has been well coordinated with the American College Testing Program. However, there are a few areas that could be improved to make it a 5 star program. First, the directions for using the school management disk were not clearly written. First, it was difficult to clearly understand how to use it. Generally, the rest of the program was user-friendly and punching random keys did not disrupt the program indicating that it is soundly developed.

Secondly, it would be helpful if more emphasis and development were given to the possibility of using this program in a computer lab with a total class of students. This has been alluded to as a possibility in their material, but is not well developed. This approach would be a real plus.

Thirdly, it would be helpful if this program were sold with an option to buy an "update package." This feature would allow those who buy this package to update the program for a nominal fee as the need arises in our fast-paced world.

CERTIFICATE MAKER

Review Written By: Lance Huffman
Counselor
Manitou Springs High School
Manitou Springs, CO

Springboard Software
7808 Creekridge Circle
Minneapolis, MN 55435

Apple II Plus, IIe, IIc, printer
64K, 1 or 2 disk drives

Cost: $49.95

Ease of learning 4

Ease of Use	4
Documentation	4
Support	3
Overall	4

With this program Springboard Software has prepared a tool that can help the educator at all levels. Certificate Maker lets one build a wide variety of certificates which can be used to praise students, staff, or parents. Most certificates contain pre-designed titles and graphics and have space for a custom text, signature, and date. Other certificate forms are blank and allow one to design a custom certificate, although you cannot change or create graphics.

Certificate Maker uses 220 templates, which are the basis of the certificates. These templates are depicted in the manual and show where the title, graphic, body of text, signature line, and date will appear. After choosing a template, the user simply supplies all the information required to fill out the certificate. The user can print text in two sizes, with 24 selectable borders and five selectable font styles which help customize each award. A mail-merge type utility provides an easy way to produce identical certificates for more than one individual. The user simply creates a list of names, saves it to a disk, then specifies the wildcard "*name*" in the text of the certificate. Before printing, the program lets the user select those individuals for which a certificate should be prepared.

Certificate Maker fills two double sided copy-protected disks, with three sides containing the certificate templates. The user will need a blank disk to save name files. The documentation is organized in a flowchart manner and, like the program, is easy to follow.

Certificate Maker is very easy to use and that is a definite plus for the program. Unfortunately, it is so easy and friendly, it does not offer many options and is not very powerful. Editing text in a certificate is time consuming because if the user discovers a typo on the first line after progressing to line five, all text entered after the error will have to be deleted. Another drawback is not being able to save completed certificate designs on a disk. Instead, the user has to create from scratch each time a certificate is needed.

Overall I found the program useful and have used it several times in my own counseling work. It is an efficient manner of saying "Job well done" which is a message most educators need to say more often. By adding an inexpensive frame, the certificate can become a prized award, especially for younger students.

Automated Letters of Recommendation

One of the time consuming tasks that educators at the secondary level share is producing many different quality letters of recommendation for seniors who are applying for college admissions, scholarships, and a wide variety of awards. With admission competition getting increasingly difficult, recommendation letters often either make or break admission and scholarship award decisions. A well-written letter is a must for secondary school staff if they are going to provide their students with equal opportunity in the post-high school arena. A poorly written letter of recommendation is often perceived as a reflection of the quality of education the young person has received while attending their home town high school.

When the clerical load of the secondary staff person can be reduced and the quality of the outcome maintained, then the educators are free to invest their time and energy into other areas of importance. One approach developed in Colorado is a computerized system for producing letters of recommendation via the word processor. The project has become known as the LOR System, Letters of Recommendation, and instead of producing one letter per hour, as many as five to six per hour can be written using a well organized manual and two 5 1/4 " computer diskettes.

The manual is divided into two major divisions for male and female. Each major division is divided into three additional subdivisions, which are entitled introductory paragraphs, body paragraphs, and conclusion paragraphs. The paragraphs are also stored on the computer diskettes and organized by identification numbers.

When the staff person is called upon to write a letter of recommendation, the process involves:

* Choosing the appropriate division of the manual, male or female.

* Reviewing and selecting the paragraphs from the manual that best describe the student who has requested the letter of recommendation.

* Taking the paragraph ID numbers to the computer and merging the selected paragraphs to form the letter of recommendation.

* Editing the computer formed letter, inserting the student's name, the correct date, the appropriate salutation. Here the user can also choose to include paragraphs that describe the student's unique characteristics which may not have been adequately described in the pre-formed paragraphs.

* Printing the letter, signing it, and presenting it to the student.

In building the manual, the designers made an effort to include paragraphs describing the many different characteristics which high school students may possess: strong character, positive attitude, athletic ability as well as paragraphs describing various levels of achievement. The manual contains statements for different recommendation requests such as admissions, scholarships, financial need, and special awards for achievement. Also included in the manual are paragraphs focusing on the average but deserving student who needs a letter of recommendation.

The computer files which hold the paragraphs have been constructed using two different operating systems: ProDos and DOS 3.3. This allows staff to use either of two popular word processing systems: AppleWorks or Magic Window II.

As is often the case with many new office automation systems available to educators today, a considerable amount of time must be committed in order to learn the skills necessary to take advantage of the systems. For example, using this system of writing letters of recommendation, is not possible or practical for a staff person who has not mastered the skills of a word processing system.

This system of producing letters was developed to aid the school staff in managing their time in a more efficient manner and to provide more time for other important educational concerns. The flexibility in the structureallows for personal inuendos to be added, thus eliminating the fear of the canned letter. The purpose of the manual is not to impersonalize, but rather, to eliminate imperfection and start the flow of creative thoughts, therefore, improving the quality of the letter. This system offers a way of turning out well-written letters 100% of the time, without stress, anxiety, or panic.

Partnerships: Expanding School Resource Bases Through New Relationships

by

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ABSTRACT

Partnerships: Expanding School Resource Bases Through New Relationships

Purpose: The presentation will examine how partnerships expand the resource bases of small, rural schools in communities with limited financial resources.

Objectives: (1) To review a successful process for identifying, selecting, equipping and working with partners for implementing research-based school improvement strategies in small, rural schools; and (2) to define and illustrate the variety of roles which partners can play in such schools.

Focus: In 1985, the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory began a five-state project to improve education programs in small rural schools through the judicious use of partners, including state departments of education, associations, community organizations, businesses, universities and agencies. SEDL, working cooperatively with state departments of education, has implemented research-based strategies in five demonstration schools, one in each of the five states.

Practical Implications: SEDL's five-state project is already achieving useful results. Participants will receive detailed information on procedures and roles used in this partnership program that will enable interested parties to develop a planning matrix for their own programs.

Partnerships: Expanding School Resource Bases Through New Relationships

The most recent review of rural education points out that there is contention among scholars who are interested in education and economic development (DeYoung, 1987). While some suggest that emerging businesses should form partnerships with rural schools, others no less persuasively suggest that the improvement of rural school education will attract business interests to the rural communities (Forber, 1985; Lick, 1985). This paper contributes to neither of these arguments, but speaks instead to the fact that in a time when the economy of a region is depressed, the public schools of that region may well need to reallocate existing resources or reach out to untapped resources by forming partnerships with existing agencies, associations, and organizations, or forming new kinds of relationships with people in the communities they serve.

In 1985, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory conducted an extensive needs sensing in it five-state region of Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas, in an effort to determine how best to apply its resources in the next several years to a major educational dilemma. In all five states the data mounted to show (1) that the economy was plunging downward, with little or no hope for a reversal for the next decade, and (2) that rural, small schools were beset with the need to upgrade instruction, expand curricular offerings, and strengthen their professional development as a result of major educational reform legislation and regulation. It appeared that just at the time that educational researchers, policymakers, and educators were ready to acknowledge that urban based models of service delivery had failed to meet the needs of rural students, especially those who are minority or handicapped, the state and federal resources to address the problem were not available.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory's (SEDL's) response was to initiate a project to improve education in one elementary school in each of its five states, through the judicious involvement of partners, including parents, other community citizens, state departments of education, professional educations, community organizations, businessses, and universities. The base for the effort built upon the institution's considerable research in parent involvement and community school, and business partnerships.

Project Focus

Schools selected for participation are representative of many rural schools in the region: small, isolated, resource-bound, with large percentages of the student population from economically disadvantaged families and language or ethnic minority groups. Student achievement on standardized or norm-referenced tests in the basic skills in the schools had been below the state mean for the previous three to five years. The student bodies thus included: (1) Navajo, (2) Choctaw and Chickasaw, (3) Hispanic, (4) Black, and (5) White. Staff at the schools included some members of these respective ethnic groups, but the majority werw White and had been trained at regional teachers' colleges relatively nearby.

The aim of the project is to raise student achievement in conjunction with, and at least partly as a consequence, of new partnerships. It thus combines two processes: a partnership process with a school improvement process.

Processes and Assumptions

The partnership process combines understandings from research from the areas of change, staff development, dissemination, parent involvement, and school-business partnerships (King, 1985; King, 1986; Merenda, 1986; Hall and Hord, 1987; Louis, et al., 1981; Firestone and Wilson, 1983; Pelton, 1983; Loucks-Horsley, 1987; Williams and Charkin, 1985). The school improvement process is based on research from three areas: exceptional schools/effective schools, effective teaching, and change. This latter process and tools for implementation are included in two SEDL documents: *Research-Based Strategies for School Improvement* and *Research-Based Tools for School Improvement*. The interplay and sequence between these two major processes are being documented in the project.

Assumptions on which the project is based include the following:

1. The poor, isolated rural school, if it continues to exist, will continue to be poor and isolated for the remainder of the century. Revenues from local, state, and federal sources are not likely to increase.
2. The press for higher academic achievement for all students and lower school dropouts will continue.
3. All students can learn.
4. All school staff are committed to student success in learning.
5. Although financial/tax bases may stay constant, resources can be reallocated or expanded through new understandings and new partnerships.
6. Strong school/business/community partnerships derive from an acknowledged significant need.
7. Because partnerships are collaborations, there are many ways of carrying them out.

Procedure

The project has used a three-part procedure: planning, implementing, and evaluating. The procedure is iterative, as new partnerships are developed, implemented, and concluded.

Planning consists of essentially seven steps: (1) developing the concept, (2) scanning the external environment for potential partners, (3) scanning the interal environment, (4) selecting and developing key staff and/or materials, (5) planning the calendar, (6) developing the resource matrix, and estimating the cost.

Implementation consists of nine steps: (1) contacting the potential partners, (2) orienting them to the needs, (3) brainstorming resource options with them, (4) securing commitments from the partners, (5) developing specific procedures and roles, (6) training and assigning the staff and the partners, (7) initiating the "work," (8) reporting for formative evaluation purposes, and (9) rewarding both staff and partners. Evaluation consists of surveying four different groups (teachers, administrators, staff, and partners) and of examining the results of the entire partnership effort in terms of the original objective for establishing the partnership (Exhibit A).

The project was inititated by the development of the two school improvement documents to supplement the research-based materials already developed by SEDL in the areas of parent involvement and school/business/community partnerships. As these two volumes were nearing completion, the project staff met to engage in the planning process. The staff developed the concept of inviting each school into partnership with SEDL (instead of anticipating or waiting for schools to volunteer). This seemed appropriate for the project purpose; that is to say, it could be assumed that rural small schools who kenw how to expand their resources in this fashion had already done so, and this project was designed to exemplify or model for those other schools procedures and practices unknown to them. Next, SEDL examined the external environment for potential partners. In the region were dozens of organizations, agencies, and associations committed to the furtherance of education. These were listed by state, and many were informally "checked out," i.e., was a state level teachers' professional organization a legislative lobby group or a staff development group? Would a volunteer organization commit its resources to such a school? Which organization could lend the greatest ongoing strength to such an effort? Which organization's involvement might lead to legal difficulties? On the basis of purpose, on-site availability, commitment, and legal responsibility, the state department of education in each state was acknowledged to be the best possible full partner for the venture. Internally, the project staff acknowledged that ready expertise was available in such crucial areas as leadership, school improvement, change, parent involvement, and partnerships. The staff further had links to a variety of organizations in each state.

Key staff and materials had already been selected. When a calendar for contacts was established, a projected resource matrix was drawn up, and the cost of project start-up for the partners and the school was estimated.

The calendar consisted of a five-month schedule for securing the ten partnerships (two in each state); the resource matrix named the resources or defined the roles which a partner could play: training, service to teacher or student, materials, and motivation (Exhibit B). The entire effort was defined as school improvement. Success was defined as increased student achievement as measured by several indicators, including standardized, norm-referenced tests.

For this effort, potential contributions of each partner were projected. The school would provide new learning/training for the other two partners as it delivered service to the students, and in fact, would generally provide the motivation for the entire project. The state department would be able to provide training, service, some materials, and motivation. SEDL would provide training (especially to the leaders), service, some materials, and motivation. Implementation began, not with the schools, but with the other partners, the state departments of education. The project managers met with the Chief State School Officers and their aides to describe their project vision, orient them to the projected needs of such an effort, and in fact, to brainstorm with them about the possible roles which a state department could play. Each Chief made a commitment for his Department and defined or helped define working procedures. The assigned staff did not need training, but the project staff did orient informally the key staff, who, in at least some cases, worked with the Chief at the first task jointly agreed upon by him and SEDL: the selectoin of the school site. Using the criteria already established, the Chiefs used one of several procedures to secure the school: (1) named five or six schools that fit the criteria, invited them into an orientation session to hear a SEDL presentation, and invited self-nomination; (2) named a superintendent who had several schools in his district which could qualify, invited him to an orientation, and invited him to name a school; or (3) invited the school superintendent and principal into the project.

Securing commitments required not five months, but eight. And in some of the partnerships which were effected, state departments demurred from any role except motivation. And in at least two of the school cases, there appeared to be reluctant, unvoiced acceptance rather than a freely-entered-upon partnership. In every case, SEDL spent up-front time meeting with the school administrators with the faculties explaining what the ensuing partnerships might mean, and inviting them into the experience. At this point, staff assessment was that none of the schools had ever considered the possibility that a regional laboratory or a state deparmtent of education could be a resource to them.

Procedures for ways of working were established imediately: copies of correspondence went to all partners; in some states, it was decided that all partners would be on site simultaneously; at some sites it was agreed that the superintendent would always be briefed before any training or other activity occurred. In each state, at each site, it was agreed there would be "no surprises." Administrators at each school site were given overviews of the school improvement process, they were invited to name school improvement teams who could receive leadership training from SEDL, so that they in turn could lead the school faculty through the improvement process. The initial training consisted of on-site briefings and a regional conference for all five teams. The "work" of the project began shortly thereafter, with SEDL and Department staff on-site delivering staff development on effective school research or with a SEDL-sponsored consultant doing the same. Additional training occurred in the ensuing months. By the end of the school year each faculty had developed action plans for improving their school (six months after the teams had received their initial training).

As the teams began their work, SEDL began the second cycle of securing partners, by continuing to work with the school administrators, inviting them to scan their external environment for other potential partners. They were prompted with the lists of potential partners prepared earlier by SEDL for each state; local administrators chose the organizations with whom they had rapport and that they felt might make a contribution to the school effort. SEDL subsequently hosted an invitational orientation lunch for organizational representatives at the cafeterias of each of the schools. The meeting focused on the school improvement effort underway, and discussed possible ways in which they might become involved, from individual tutoring to adopt-a-school efforts. Present were representatives of universities, businesses, civic organizations, and clubs. Every agency responded positively, indicating its eagerness to be involved when the school was ready.

Shortly thereafter, SEDL developed with each school for its use two questionnaires, one to be administerd to parents of school children and the other to be administered to non-parent members of the community. These surveys were administered and sent to SEDL for analysis. A significant portion of each survey was a section asking for the respondent's name and address, with a series of questions about skills, expertise, or experience that might be shared with school children or with school staff, so that a profile of potential individual partners for each site also became available.

At the end of the year, after the faculties had developed their first action plans, SEDL also wrote letters to the organizations, reviewing the status of the project and thearby results of school change efforts, so that they would be informed about progress underway. Also significant to the partnership effort was that at each site feedback from teachers and administrators was secured through surveys and interviews to determine what had been useful, what had been detrimental, and what changes needed to be made. Meetings were also held with each state department of education for the same kind of reflective formative evaluation.

Currently occurring at each site is the training of one person who will coordinate the work of each person or partner organization, as well as the training of the school staff to make effective use of the resources. A major resource is "A Process for Partnerships," in SEDL's *Synthesis of Information Relating to School and Business Partnerships*. (Exhibit C). The chapter points out that the implementation of new ideas or collaborative arrangements must be tailored to the people involved, rather than to the innovation. Part of the training of the school staff consists of their clarifying for themselves their concerns about the changes through which they are going as well as determining the kinds of assistance or service which they can use effectively and the kind which can serve students effectively, learning how to work with a volunteer adult, and learning how to manage a classroom or small group tutoring involving another person. Part of the resonsiblity of the administrators in each school is to acknowledge which responsibilities are the legal responsibility of the professional staff (and cannot be delegated), the liability of the school, the state statutes which may govern use of volunteers or partners, and the necessity of school board policies. The role of SEDL is to provide training and counsel; the role of the state department of education in each state is to provide the guidance and oversight to assure that sound local decisions and practices are in place before the second cycle of partners actually begin to add to the resources of the school.

Currently on each site there are only two full partners at work. Tentative plans, however, are underway for the following resources to be made available at one or more sites next semester: individual tutoring, guest lecturing/demonstrating, club sponsoring, field trip chaperoning, cafeteria monitoring, volunteer caller about absentees, awards for outstanding academic improvement and for school attendance, instructional material design and duplication, workshop presentations, remedial tutoring. None of the efforts is major, but the staff is increasingly aware that human resources of these kinds can substantially extend the time and energy of the professional staff, provide individualized instruction to students who need it, and generally motivate the entire school. Each school plans to accept any size of partnership for any length of time. Each also is making plans for ways of monitoring, so that improvements in the partnership process can be constantly made.

Significance

At a time when the region's economy is spiraling downward and the nation tries to regain its strength in international economic competition, small and rural schools are particularly pressed by the demands for increasing rigor in student achievement. In some states, the schools are threatened with consolidation; and all of the faculty are being held accountable for better products without better funding. Reaching out to existing local, state, and regional agencies, organizations, associations, and persons (parents and non-parents alike) may well hold the best promise for expanding the resource base of the school. It is not, however, a matter of simply verbalizing a need; it is a matter of using the sound, well-tested research bases of two major areas...school improvement and partnerships...carefully and slowly that may well be the wave of the future for half of all public schools in this country (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1980 cited in DeYoung, 1987).

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WEAVING WILLOWS INTO CURRICULUM

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WEAVING WILLOWS INTO CURRICULUM

This paper is comprised of several sections. The beginning describes a one thousand mile riverboat trip from Circle, Alaska to LaPierre's house which is located in the Yukon Territory of Canada. This section will give an overview of scenery of the Porcupine River country and some brief historical sketches taken from tape recorded interviews of inhabitants of the region. The second section will discuss the process used in developing a text for classroom use and discuss a methodology for similar projects. Finally, some ideas for classroom use of these and similar projects will be suggested.

In the early summer of 1983, I embarked on a three week river trip with one of the most fascinating individuals I have ever met. Richard Martin was a Gwich'in Athabaskan Indian and 75 years old when he and I traveled the Porcupine River. He spent the first 35 years of his life on the Porcupine River living a subsistence lifestyle, which consisted of making his living by hunting, trapping and working along that river.

We traveled by truck to Circle and from there down the Yukon to Fort Yukon. From there we traveled to LaPierre's House. Fort Yukon was founded by the Hudson Bay Company in 1847. The reason I mention that fact is because that company played an important role in the history of the Porcupine River Country.

The Porcupine flows in a southwesterly direction from Canada and enters the Yukon a mile downstream from Fort Yukon. In 1867, the year Alaska was purchased from Russia, the Hudson Bay Company was forced to leave Fort Yukon and they moved to a site called Howling Dog Village. It was discovered that they had miscalculated their location and they moved again to a site called Rampart. Once again an error was discovered and they finally moved to the exact Canada/Alaska border. This site was named Rampart House or New Rampart.

The second major river from the mouth of the Porcupine is the Sheenjik. The mouth of the Sheenjik was not always at its present location, however. Richard Martin and I stopped for tea just around the bend from this site. As we were talking he said, "When I was small, about twelve years old, we stopped here with my mother. You see that dried up slough coming out over there? That used to be the mouth of the Sheenjik. There was a village here in the early days. When I stopped here with my mother, that time, we even found the old buildings."

K'aiiroondak in the Gwich'in language means "something behind the willows." In the north country, willows often grow in areas which were once cleared for settlements. When viewed from the river, the willows screen any sign of human inhabitation. Yet, these places were home to many and still live in the memory of a few.

Richard and I pushed our way through the willows. Back two hundred yards from the bank we found the remains of five cabins. Richard said that Myra Moses would know about them.

Myra Moses was 106 years old when we interviewed her. She was the tiniest adult I have ever seen. She was living with her granddaughter in Old Crow, Canada. She told us, "There at Drautsih, in the springtime, when the flowers first start to open, there many people gathered. There, at that place we were gonna get married, you see. And we all gathered. Porcupine and Black River people were there. At that place, we were given in marriage. This man married me - my oldest sister got married to my brother-in-law Alexander. And then we went into the Black River country. I belong to this side (Canadian). I'm from people on the other side. My mother and my father were Americans. We traveled up this way, and back and forth. We did this because there were many caribou here, people gathered here many times. People from all over, there they gathered, and there my mother and them also did. That's where I was born, they say. And then, I was born on the Canadian side, that's why I'm Canadian, you see. At that time a lot of people lived at the Sheenjik River. They went up on that river and still ahead they lived on the mountains. Your uncle and I got together in 1901. That really was a long time ago I think. My nephew, right now my age is alot..."

When the interview was over Myra asked to hear it played back. "I've never heard myself speak before," she explained. The following winter she died.

Shuman House was the site of a road house - the early days' answer to a Holiday Inn. This site once boasted having thirteen houses. Now only two remain. The river continues to eat at the high cut bank in front of the settlement and soon these will be gone.

Richard told of the time, when as a young man, he had built his first boat on a sand bar across from Shuman House.

"Well, I didn't know anything about buildin' boat or anything,
never built boat before.
Joe Herbert, he knew how.
So he said, 'Let's get logs.'
Whipsaw logs, you know.
John Enoke was with me.
I went up river, got 13 big logs,
all long ones about 38 feet long.
Got them in the river and landed down at that bar.
Then the old man told us to dig a hole over there.
We put a big post there, four of them
with a log across.
Then we put two big logs down there
and rolled those big logs on top of that rack, you know.
Then we took a long piece of twine,
put it in a little can with a lot of charcoal,
and pounded it.
Put a little water in it and got it all black.
Joe Herbert told me to hold it on the end of the twine like that.
We got it pretty tight and that way
you put a black line on 'em.
He told us to saw along that line.
Oh, we had a heck of a time, me and John Enoke
The saw of the tooth is like that, you know.
Got caught and out of line.
Pretty soon Sam Herbert and Henry William got there.
Henry got down there, Sam got on top.
Shoo, shoo.

They were just,
gosh darn, one shot they cut about three, four inches at the time.,
You know when they came down like that...
It's a long saw, you know,
seven feet long.
Just like this, sliding up and down.
Gee, look easy.
Now, me and John Enoke we get there and we...
Oh boy, we finally,
we caught on pretty good.
Well, they helped us cut all those thirteen logs."

Above Shuman House the river narrows into a swift channel and flows through a broad canyon for about one hundred miles. Richard spent his youth at Burnt Paw and John Herbert Village. This pile of traps is all that remains of Richard's cache at Burnt Paw. John Herbert's Village consists of two cabins and a field of tall grass.

I asked Richard about strange occurrences he saw concerning greenhorns traveling through the country.

"Well, when I was a kid we lived in Burntpaw.
I was just snaring rabbits, up along river bank,
and catching ground squirrels, too.
I used to go around the bend and check my snares.
One afternoon I went up there and fooled around. You know
checking my snares and goofing around.
Saw what looked like a big log with a root on the end of it
floating on.
That's what I thought first
I looked at it.
Checked my snare and went and looked again.
It didn't look quite right.
It looked like somebody was sitting on a big log coming down river.
He just had a pole he used for paddle, a long pole.
I looked at it, it don't look right to me.
Somebody sitting on a log.
I ran home.
I ran back down.
I told my old man, I said,
'There's a big log drifting down,
it looks like somebody's sitting on it.'
Well, we waited.
Sure enough, coming around the bend came the log.
And there was a guy sitting on the log.
And one big log, another a bit smaller tied along side of it.
But he had his feet in the water on both sides
and was paddling with a long pole.
My old man walked out to talk to him.
He thought maybe he lost his canoe or something, you know.
He told him, 'You should have a canoe or something.'
'Yea,' he said.
He looked, my old man had a Peterbar canoe there,
pretty good size one, too. (A Peterbar canoe is one that is factory made.)

And two, three canoes over there. He was looking at this Peterbar canoe and he wanted to borrow it.
The stranger coming down the river want to borrow.
My old man said, 'No, I can't loan you that one but I can sure let you have one of these canoes.'
He looked at the canoe, homemade canoe and said 'Na, I don't want a canoe, I would rather have a Peterbar canoe.'
The old man said, 'No, I need it. Take one of those canoes, any one.
Any one you want, take one.'
'Nope, I don't want no canoe, log just as good,' he said.
He got back on the log and started paddling down river."

In the early 1960's, Richard and several others became disappointed with living in Fort Yukon and decided to build a new village. They chose the general area of the old Hudson Bay site of Howling Dog Village. They called the new site Canyon Village. The total population grew to around fifty residents then dwindled to include only Richard and his wife. Finally, they saw no reason to live two hundred miles from their nearest neighbor and resettled in Chalkyitsik, a small village located south of Shuman House towards Fort Yukon.

Howling Dog Village was named after Howling Dog Rock, a place where the canyon walls nearly came together. As Richard explained:

"In the early days people go down river with the rafts
you know,
some of them made of caribou skin.
They sewed it together and made a little boat.
Some of them had dogs
a bunch of dogs.
They couldn't put dogs in a little raft.
They let the dogs run along the shore.
When they get down to Howling Dog Rock it is straight up and down and into the river you know.
And when the dogs get there, well
the raft was getting away from them.
Well, they would run back and forth and pretty soon they sit there and howl.
Finally they give up and jump in the river and swim down, you know.
And that's the reason they call it Howling Dog."

Richard explained further the use of dogs:

"Well, a lot of time we track line the boat.
But a lot of time they used the dogs.
When there was a nice beach like up around the canyon.
You know, gravel beach for a long ways, well, we used dogs.
Each dog had one line come from the boat.
About halfway to the dog then from there each dog had his own line.
You know what I mean.
Have you seen an Eskimo dog team?
They have a long rope and then each dog has his own line."

"I saw one guy who had his dog trained so good that where snags were sticking out in the water, the lead dog would swim around it so the rope won't get cut.
All the rest of the dogs would follow him.
I saw that happen."
"And the dog was the only thing they had in those days to do all the work.
When they went out and get house logs they had to drag it out of the woods.
They used a dog team to do that.
When the wanted to get their wood in the winter,
they hauled it with a dog team.
When they went hunting, they used dogs to get out there, and when they got a caribou or moose they hauled it in with a dog.
Then they went out on the trap line with the dog.
And then if somebody got sick they had to get them to town.
They used a dog team to do it.
No airplane, no nothing in those days."

It is twenty miles from Canyon Village to Old Rampart. At Old Rampart only one house and a metal shed are left standing. Most of the other buildings were dismantled and floated to Canyon Village and used in construction there.

Richard suggested that I hike to the top of a small hill behind the village and look at the cemetery. From that vantage we could look across the Porcupine River and see the settlement called New Camp, complete with fallen-down houses with neat fences around them.

After seeing two grizzlies prowl the beach from across the river, Richard told the story of Rupp and Bill Mason.

"Big men.
Bill Mason, his arm.
About as big as a ten year old boy around the waist. Rupp was older. Rupp Mason, they said he killed a bear, Grizzly bear."
Yep, he killed a bear with his hands
he didn't have anything.
He even broke the bear's wrist, like that, by twisting it.
The bear tore his shoulder all up, you know.
He got the bear, though.
The bear ran after and grabbed him.
He and Bill O'Brian were crossing country somewhere,
I don't know where it was.
They said they were going over the mountain
and they walked right into bear.
Bill O'Brian had a rifle,
thirty-forty.
He wanted to shoot that bear but he was afraid of hitting Rupp Mason.
That bear was rollin around
he didn't want to shoot.
So, he finally got into the fight, too.
Couldn't shoot, you know.
They said he threw that grizzly bear.
Bill O'Brian, he went to work with a butcher knife, I think.
They killed the bear, though.

He had thirty-forty, but if he had shot at that bear he was afraid he might hit his buddy there, you know. So he just dropped it and jumped in with his knife. He said it was a big bear."

Rampart House or New Rampart was the last Hudson Bay post in Alaska. The store was actually built on the Canadian side of the boundary and the majority of the village was on the American side.

Cadzow, the trader, employed six hunters to keep the post supplied in meat. Richard explained the difficulty steamboats of that time had when crossing shallow areas.

"When Cadzow came up with his steamer
he couldn't make the bend.
That boat was so big and didn't have not enough power.
It had a steam engine, you know.
It could just about hold its own.
But couldn't make it over that ripple.
Cadzow had a winch here on the bluff.
It had a cable that went all way down to the end of the ripple.
It was almost a half mile long.
They put the cable on the steamboat.
Sometimes they used power.
You see that one cylinder big engine there?
That had a belt around this winch and turning it.
A lot of times I saw a whole bunch of boys there cranking that thing.
It had a handle on both sides of it.
You could see that boat come slowly up and
finally they got it over the ripple.
It came up there.
The steam engine going full blast too.
That's how he brought it over the ripple.
Not only this ripple, but
all the ripples along the way."

Richard also explained the dangers of boats of that period.

"The boat had an engine almost up in the middle.
The shaft had to go all the way back.
And down through the boat back there, you know.
It was a long shaft.
It had a big universal joint, you know, one of those knuckle joints,
they call it.
It was so the shaft wouldn't bind.
Dan Cadzow was up front. He wore fur coat.
It was a long one.
Made like regular coat, you know.
Caribou skin it was made out of.
He wore a big fancy coat and walked up and down
while somebody else ran the boat.
Fred Paul was the one running the boat at that time. They were going up
river below Rampart about seven miles from home.
Fred Paul was up there steering the boat, you know.
He heard something.

Gol darn boat was slowing down.
He heard some commotion and looked back.
Dan Cadzow back there all alone.
As he was going by and that big knuckle joint caught that big long fur coat, wrapped around, you know.
So darn quick he fell back.
He said he stopped the forty horsepower."

"Fred Paul got back there and stopped the engine.
There's a button, you know.
You press it.
He stopped the engine.
That parka was just choking him, Cadzow.
Fred grabbed a knife and cut that gol dang coat off of him.
When Dan Cadzow got up, they say it was a little vest."

In 1911 the International Boundary Commission arrived at New Rampart House. Their job was to cut a fifty foot wide swath through the trees the entire length of the US/Canada border. The summer we were doing our initial fieldwork for this project, they were at New Rampart House again.

The 1911 expedition of the Boundary Commission brought the first horses that many of the people had seen. Richard claims that they numbered five hundred. Their files indicate that about one hundred horses were used in the project.

The cemetery for the village is upstream about half a mile. It is located on a high bluff overlooking the river and Quarantine Island.

In 1911 an outbreak of smallpox was reported at New Rampart. The Boundary Commission claimed responsibility for the outbreak, saying they had unintentionally brought in blankets carrying the virus. Cadzow and a physician he had brought with him the previous summer quarantined the entire river, itemized personal property in each house and proceeded to burn the village.

Cadzow had the foresight the previous summer to bring a large amount of building supplies to New Rampart. With these he built a hospital on Quarantine Island. The Canadian government offered Cadzow a fair settlement for his efforts.

When the quarantine was lifted and the Indians were allowed off the island, they left Rampart House. They feared being locked up for another year. Cadzow, in the following years, tried to sue the Canadian government for his efforts. He lost a year's trading supplies and his barge in Fort Yukon over a dispute with custom agents a few years later. He never recovered from this financial setback. Native people of the region to this day claim the smallpox epidemic was a hoax, set up by Cadzow and the doctor to defraud the government.

Cadzow died a pauper in Dawson. His wife and daughter lived by themselves at Rampart House for years after his death. Richard remembered a hunting trip he took with the old lady.

"I forget her name,
but she was Joe Neetro's mother.
She is also mother to Nellie Carrol's mother.
Nellie Carrol and her mother used to live at Rampart House.
Nellie was just a little girl at that time.
The old lady told me the way to go, so I followed them.
I couldn't see the trail
but there is an old trail to the top of the hill.
I went up there and I could see the mountain back that way.

I finally got to the mountain.
I went over the mountain
and on the other side there is a little valley.
I looked down there and I could see they were skinning caribou all over the valley.
I don't know how many caribou.
Well, John Enoke was there and David John.
Nellie and her mother.
The whole family was out there.
They were surprised to see me.
John Enoke gave me one big bull caribou.
'Take that one.'
So I cut it up.
Boy, that's a lot of packing from way up three or four miles.
That old lady had about seven dogs with her.
Seven big ones.
She put meat in the dog pack and the dog would pack out the meat.
There I was, I didn't have a dog.
I had to pack.
It would take two or three trips to get that caribou out.
She told me, 'Here, see, I don't need all these dogs.
Take one of them.'
I looked at that dog.
That dog looked pretty mean.
A big one.
He had a pack on his back and old lady said,
'Go with him.'
Well, the dog got up and started following me."

"So I went over to the caribou,
and cut it up.
I petted him on the head a little, I was a little scared.
I tried to make friends with the dog.
He just laid down there.
So I cut up the meat.
I figured it would be too heavy for dog.
So I cut all the bones out of it and threw them away.
I put all that meat in the pack.
You have to make the dog pack,
even weight on both sides.
You put too much on one side and the dog will be lopsided
walking and they get tired awful easy.
Pretty soon the pack might fall off.
I keep putting meat into it and he got up just like he didn't have a pack on him.
I put one caribou ham in each side, one shoulder on each side, one rib on each side.
Just about the whole caribou.
So I packed just a caribou head.
I told him, 'Let's go now.'
Well, the dog got up and started walking with me.
He just followed me.
Wherever I sat down to rest,
he sat right along side of me and rested too.

Finally we came out on top of that hill up there.
That's pretty high.
I'll say that's about, probably about 800 feet.
Might be more.
And its pretty steep.
I thought, if that dog starts to go down that hill,
he might go head over heels and keep rolling right down and get hurt.
So I tied a little rope around his neck and I was going to lead him down.
He didn't want me to hold him.
He just pulled the rope out of my hand.
I didn't know that dog knew better than I.
He walked up on the side of the hill.
We'll say about 100 feet.
Then he turned around and came back down.
He was zig zagging back and forth all the way down to the foot of that hill."

Old Crow is the only inhabited settlement on the Porcupine River at this time. It is famous for muskrat trapping. In Richard's youth, he went to Crow Flats trapping.

"Gol darn, that happened way up there in the Crow Flats.
Crow Flat is about 60-70 miles from Old Crow.
Straight over the mountain.
There are mountains all around.
I don't know how far across the valley.
In the middle, it's a great big flat area.
There are lakes just like you look at the stars.
Millions of lakes.
When you paddle around one lake, grab the end of your canoe and step over into the next lake.
And mosquito, that's where they come from."
"I was there in 1928.
I'd been muskrating.
Well, I was under age.
I couldn't get a license.
You had to be 21.
So, I told them I was going to go along.
I went up.
I had twenty-two and I went out and trapped and shot.
I saw a muskrat swimming.
I raised my gun like that and there's about 10 mosquitoes standing on the barrel."
"There was a mounted police that visited each camp.
He walked around, you know.
Go around and check people out.
A guy named Jack Frost.
He walked right into me one time.
I was checking rat traps.
I was traveling with a dog team, you know.
I was checking rat trap.
'You got a license?' he asked me.
I told him 'no.'

'I'm checking trap for somebody.'
He didn't say nothing, he just went away.
He probably wasn't going to be too hard on people.
I was trying to make a living, that's all.

Myra Moses told Richard about his grandfather:

"When Old Rampart was there, our grandfather Shahnyaati was living at that time. At that time Ch'eeghwatti was living too."

"Shahnyaati and Ch'eeghwatti were living at the time Old Rampart was there. He didn't live there, he just came up and went back down. He wanted to get married to Annie Tsal, that's why he came up and went back down again, but she didn't like him."

"Shahnyaati at one time talked to the brushman, they say. Right up there that way, upriver. He was living a poor existence with his children. He was very old and poor."

"At that time people sensed something was out there. Everyone left him and went downriver. He was old and poor."

"The brushman almost grabbed one woman, they say. He said, 'I'll walk up there and talk to them.'"

"He said, 'A long time ago, up that way, I went among you. I know all of you. You know about me also. Right now I can't defend myself. All my treasures went downriver, only a few women are staying here. Where you came from - go back to.'"

"After while up there, on the hill, there was a shot. From there, up further, they shot again. Every once in a while they shot as they went further. Finally, they didn't hear it any longer."

"If they had done something wrong with him, he would have used his medicine on them and killed them all. He was depending on that. We didn't see them again."

The next section of this paper discusses a process used in developing a text for classroom use.

"As they were leaving, my mother just
 stood in front of him.

She chose him for me, it seems, even
 though my grandfather and uncle
 were living at the time. They got together and made speeches
 outside.
So
 I guess he said 'yes.' And they left,
 it seems, and
 we came back pulling a load of firewood
 I forget how many dogs we had.

Ah, we were very hungry
 so I went inside real quickly and my mother spoke.

'Go down to your uncle Henry's house,'
 she told me.

At that time my older brother,
 Robert, also was married.

They were living there too.
And so,
my father's brother was supposed to tell
me about it.

Ah, grandchild
I had never even thought about it.

So
at that
I obeyed.

I went down and went in;
my grandfather's
wife always
used to do well but she was just sitting across the room.

Meanwhile, my grandfather was just
putting food on the table
for me.

So then
he gave me food to eat and
I ate.

After I finished
he came to my side.

'We have got a man for you; don't think
anything about it,' was all he said to me.

Ah, it was like somebody hit me
across the face."

This was the way Belle Herbert described her betrothal. When she died, people in the Yukon Flats believed that she was 128 years old. The exact date of Belle Herbert's birth is unknown. Conflicting records suggest that she may have been born as early as 1854, or as late as 1870. The exact date, however, is not as important as the fact that she lived through, and remembered in detail, a period of Alaska history which experienced many significant events.

Belle spent her final years in a small village of Chalkyitsik. This area supports an abundance of waterfowl from spring to fall, as well as moose and bear and migrations of caribou. It is an area known for excellent fur.

In her early years, Belle lived a nomadic lifestyle, traveling with her mother and younger brothers. In the fall, the family might typically go towards the mountains in search of game. As spring became summer, they moved to a place along the river where fishing was productive.

I worked with her for two winters, and in the process we produced a book called Shandaa In My Lifetime. I will try to take you through a step by step process that we used in developing this text.

Chalkyitsik is a tiny village located on the Black River. I traveled there with Alice Moses. Alice was a person that Belle Herbert referred to as "grandchild." Grandchild is a term used in many different contexts among the

Gwich'in people. The term might mean a real family member, or it might mean someone who has been around a lot and who is younger and shows the correct respect.

Belle Herbert was extremely hard of hearing, and Alice knew how to make Belle understand. Belle also did not speak any English, and Alice acted as my field interpreter.

Belle lived in a small cabin where we would go and spend a couple of hours. She always seemed to anticipate our arrival and would say, "I figured you guys were coming, and I've got a story to tell." Or she would say, "I am going to tell you three stories," and she would proceed to tell three or four.

On returning to Fairbanks, the tapes were entrusted to Catherine Peter who did a word-by-word transcription. This was neatly printed on yellow legal paper in a manner that left no question as to the spelling of each word. Catherine and I then did a phrase-by-phrase translation of her transcription.

Triple copies were made of each phase of the project. One of these was a working copy, one was placed in the archives at the University, and one was kept in a separate file in case the others were destroyed. In putting the text into printed form, very little editing occurred. The book is almost a word-for-word transcription of the tapes.

Gwich'in storytellers use special words like "ree," "zhyaa," "roo," "aqwat ts'ai" to express things such as the teller's attitude or desire to call a listener's attention to something. English uses word order or stress and punctuation in writing to accomplish this. These Gwich'in words do not really have good English translations. They might be interpreted to mean "and then," "now," "and so." These words, in the context of the stories, determine the form the text follows when printed.

If you listen to a Gwich'in speaker, you notice that the tone changes. Pitch of the voice on certain syllables affects meanings of words. When the Gwich'in writing system was developed, it was felt that it would be used by speakers of that language. It was expected that they would know and provide the own correct tones. That is one aspect that makes this language a little bit different than English.

The text was set up with the idea that there is more to telling a story than just the words and sentences. For instance, the places where a storyteller pauses while speaking are important in adding meaning and feeling. These pauses also determine the form of the text.

The form the text follows in Shandaa In My Lifetime is an attempt to help preserve the storytelling aspect and make the reader aware that this is an oral history experience. After the pauses and markers were determined, a handwritten copy of the English and a typewritten copy of the Gwich'in were made. The English stanzas were matched with the Gwich'in so they would look similar on the written page.

The two texts were then put side by side on the printed page. As you can see, they are not exactly alike.

Introductions to the stories were written to provide background information. These and the illustrations required much research to assure that attire and activities were culturally appropriate as well as portraying the correct time period. The snare in this sketch differs considerably from those used in the Koyukon River area. Dog packs also differ in size and construction, depending on the area they come from and how they are being used. Even today in Alaska the physical characteristics of dogs used for short distance sprint racing and those used for long distance racing differ. The dogs used for twenty and thirty mile races are smaller than those used in races such as the Iditarod and Yukon Quest.

Belle had her own family photographs. Many of these were copied for the finished text as well as new photos which were taken.

A question that needed to be addressed was whether the text should be printed in English, Gwich'in or both languages. If it were printed only in the native language its use would be limited to speakers or readers of that language. Pragmatically speaking, material developed in this form would be very limited in its use since there are relatively few speakers of that language. Also there are few schools monolinguistic enough for students to handle that sort of material. Materials printed only in English would have the disadvantage of only really giving credence to the English language at the expense of the native language. Oral history material collected in a native language should be at least printed in that language. It seemed that developing a bilingual text would be useful to students studying the language as well as a larger audience.

Once material has been developed, it is not appropriate to expect teachers to integrate it into the curriculum. Certain constraints need to be exercised concerning who will use this material and how it can be adapted and interpreted. A relationship exists between oral history and the culture where it originates, as well as between the material and the school. There is a tendency for people outside of the culture to misinterpret these types of materials by extrapolating information outside of the cultural context. Relationships must be developed between the culture and the school in order for this to not occur.

For example, a curriculum committee that is comprised only of school personnel may take events completely out of context and try to incorporate them into day to day teaching in the school, whereas a committee comprised of both school personnel and community members would probably approach this process in a different manner. Those people trying to integrate oral history into the curriculum need to understand the culture that their materials represent and the context in which it is appropriate to use them.

Cultural history material can go beyond bilingual materials. Shandaa In My Lifetime has been read to lower elementary children, used as a history text, and as a resource in college classrooms. Other oral history materials have been used for developing place name maps of the region. Where material works best in the long run will vary teacher to teacher and community to community.

The essential ingredients for the effective use of oral history material is the extent to which the community participates in a meaningful way in the process of integrating it into the curriculum. The use of oral history material without the strong involvement of the community from which these materials originated is like a story whose meaning has been forgotten.

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Portland, Oregon 97203

COMMUNITY BASED PROGRAM TRAINING CONSULTANT TEACHERS TO SERVE SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS IN THE LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT

This program is organized in a manner that matches the strengths of the University's training program with the needs of the teachers and handicapped students in the targeted school districts.

These general strengths and needs are outlined below:

__The Small Schools__:

Strengths:

1. Practical knowledge of needs in small schools
2. Teachers with a commitment to work in small schools

Needs:

1. Personnel on-site with training and certification to serve handicapped students in the LRE
2. Practical service delivery model
3. Contact with the faculty at the School of Education
4. An ongoing support network

__The University__:

Strengths:

1. Knowledge of current research in education
2. Personnel for on-site training
3. An ongoing support network

Needs:

1. Practicum training site
2. Input on the needs of teachers in small schools

This program is made up of two major components:

1. Recruitment and training in the consultant teacher model and
2. Development of a consultant teacher practicum training site.

Management Plan

Management of this program is conducted by three coordinators. The program director is responsible for insuring ongoing cohesiveness and establishment of a systematic support network. This plan was devised in order to make the program as university-wide as possible and to capitalize upon the strengths of individual School of Education faculty members.

Recruitment and Training

The first task for the program coordinators and program director is to begin the process of selecting the targeted areas and recruiting the regular education teachers who are to participate in the program. The schools included in the selection process are all schools in Oregon and Southwest Washington that qualify as "small" schools. Transportation, communication and need are major considerations in determining the specific participants.

After the targeted areas are selected, the training model coordinator schedules a series of informational workshops in which specifics about the program are shared with the regular education teachers at both the elementary and secondary level. Twenty-five teachers are selected to participate in the program to receive preservice training in special education competencies and in the consultant teacher model. In order to be eligible, the teachers must 1) possess a regular education certificate at either the elementary or secondary level (as required by state law), 2) be employed by a small school in Oregon or Washington, 3) meet University Graduate School requirements, and 4) commit to participating in the entire three year program. All program staff participate in the selection process choosing teachers from at least seven schools. After selection, the teachers apply to the University Graduate School and are assigned as an academic advisee to the coordinator of recruitment and training.

Coursework begins Spring semester of the first year of the program and follows the schedule listed below:

Spring 1988: Introduction to the Exceptional Child
Summer 1988: Using School, Parent and Community Resources
Diagnostic & Prescriptive Teaching
Field Experience in Practicum Site
Fall 1988: Interpersonal Relations
Spring 1989: Language Development of Exceptional Children
Summer 1989: Special Education Methods and Materials
Special Education Practicum
Fall 1989: Advanced Behavior Modification
Spring 1990: The Consultant Teacher
Consultant Teacher Practicum

The courses are be taught on-site by University faculty.

Consultant Teacher Practicum

The purpose of the second component of this program is to provide an on-site consultant teacher practicum experience. The UP WITH KIDS program model is used to provide this experience.

The coordinator of this component contacts school administrators in the targeted areas to identify a site for the program and coordinates the dates for the program with the University Registrar. A brochure describing the program is sent to parents of students living near the site selected and applications from students are collected. The students selected represent the following subgroups: approximately 50 from regular education; approximately 25 from gifted and talented programs; and approximately 25 from the mildly handicapped programs. University faculty and master teachers are identified, hired, and assigned to teach the classes.

Overall Coordination

In order to assure overall coordination and quality of the program, one faculty member is assigned the overall coordinating function. The major duty of the program director is to oversee project activities to insure completion of the various components and to weave them into a cohesive program. Specifically, the director performs the following duties: serves as a liaison between the program staff and the University administration; chairs regular meetings of program staff to facilitate communication among the various components; manages the program budgets; develops the support networks; arranges press releases; and other related duties deemed necessary by the director and program staff members.

Nita Hollingsworth, Christine
Bartlett, Bruce Spang

Friday, Oct. 16 11:10-12:10 p.m.

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Chemical Dependency Definitions

Report of the
TASK FORCE
ON
CHEMICAL DEPENDENCY
AND
SPECIAL EDUCATION

May, 1986

Maine Department of Education and Cultural Services
Bureau of Instruction
Division of Special Education
and
Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services

The Division of Special Education and the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services wish to thank those on the Task Force who put their time and energy into formulating the recommendations.

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I. INTRODUCTION AND HISTORY

For a number of years, there has been a growing controversy over the role of schools in working with students who have problems related to chemical dependency, either their own or that of their families. As the general public has become increasingly aware of the effects of chemical use and abuse, and the degree to which this is a problem in our society, efforts to develop appropriate education to prevent problems has increased along with the development of more resources to effectively treat affected individuals. For student populations, this has raised the question of the way in which treatment services interface with educational services, who should be responsible for providing services, and how these services will be funded. Since the effects of chemical use by students or their families may result in school behavior and/or academic performance on the part of the student which appears to require special education, special education programs have felt increasing pressure to become the vehicle for providing appropriate educational services to these students.

As early as February 1979, dialogue began between the Divisions of Special Education and Alcohol and Drug Education Services, to try to sort out the respective roles of the two divisions. In the intervening years, there has continued to be informal dialogue and discussion about the role of Special Education, in particular, as a provider of educational services to this population of students. During this period of time, there was at least one formal request to the Department from a superintendent for the development of a policy statement for school administrative units regarding how they should deal with students who have learning problems as a result of chemical dependency. This request in 1983 prompted Commissioner Raynolds to ask the directors of the two divisions to begin the process of meeting to develop a unified response and recommendations for such a policy.

The issue of the role of Special Education as the responsible program for providing educational services seemed to be at the center of much of the discussion. P.L. 94-142 and Maine Special Education statute and regulations clearly require schools to provide free appropriate public education to students who need special education because of particular handicapping conditions. The definitions of handicapping conditions do not include chemical dependency. However, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act on Nondiscrimination on the Basis of Handicap, does include alcoholics and drug addicts as handicapped individuals who are protected from discrimination. It further requires the provision of free appropriate public education to handicapped individuals as defined in their regulations. The question this raises is what type of education a school needs to provide in order to meet its obligation under Section 504, and whether this is special education within the meaning of P.L. 94-142 and state law. A recent ruling by the Office of Civil Rights in Washington state added to the need to have clear state policy regarding this issue. OCR found the district in question had violated the provisions of Section 504 because it had a policy which specifically excluded alcoholics and drug addicts from evaluations to determine the need for appropriate education. The finding went on to say, "under EHA (Education for the Handicapped Act - P.L. 94-142) an appropriate education means special education and related services. Under Section 504, an appropriate education is not necessarily limited to special education. An appropriate education under Section 504 can consist of education in regular classes, education in regular classes with the use of supplementary services, or special education and related services."

A different issue which was raised by the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services was the concern that school personnel are not trained adequately to recognize the signs of chemical dependency or the effects of familial use of chemicals on children. As a result, some students may be misdiagnosed as handicapped under special education regulations, and are not being referred or treated for what may be their primary problem, chemical dependency issues.

With these issues in mind, staff from the two divisions began planning in July, 1984 for the development of a task force to address the problem. The first step in this process was to hold a joint meeting of the divisions in November, 1984. The purpose of this meeting was to refine the particular concerns and issues which a task force would be asked to address, to outline the framework of the assignment for the task force, and to establish broad guidelines for the membership of the task force. As a result, the divisions identified three major areas of concern:

1. Lack of statutory or regulatory language to direct school administrative units in providing appropriate educational programs for chemically dependent or affected students;

2. Lack of guidelines to assist district personnel in differentiating between special education needs of students and chemical dependency treatment needs; and

3. Need for clarification of the relationship between special education and treatment of chemical dependency.

The task force was to be asked to assist the divisions to:

1. Develop working definitions in educational terms for affected children, chemically dependent students, and guidelines for identifying them;

2. Recommend procedures for schools to use in distinguishing between students with chemical dependency treatment needs and special education needs;

3. Recommend procedures for schools to use to facilitate more accurate diagnosis and treatment planning for chemically dependent students and affected children;

4. Identify community and school resources for meeting both the treatment and educational needs of chemically dependent or affected students, with a clear definition of responsibility for provision of services to identified students; and

5. Determine the need for any changes in present legislation in order to deal with the educational needs of affected children and chemically dependent students.

During December and January, 1985, the Task Force on Chemical Dependency and Special Education was established to address the goals above. Representatives were chosen from community agencies, schools and state agencies. State agency representatives were appointed from the Departments of Human Services, Mental Health and Mental Retardation, and Corrections at the request of the Alcohol and Drug Planning Committee. Since many of the issues were about the best responses for schools to take with a student who had chemical dependency problems, a representative from the treatment provider community was appointed. Finally, in order to have an appropriate mix of school personnel, the divisions invited representatives of guidance, superintendents, principals, school nurses, classroom teachers, and special education directors to participate. The Advocates for the Developmentally Disabled were invited to send a representative, since they had been involved in several cases that raised the question of eligibility of chemically dependent students for special education services.

An invitation to participate on the Task Force was sent in January, 1985. The first all-day meeting was held at the Oblate House on February 11, 1985. Christine Bartlett, Consultant for Exceptional Children, and Bruce Spang, Adolescent Chemical Dependency Program Specialist, served as co-chairs for the Task Force. This first meeting provided the Task Force members with a history of the two divisions' efforts to clarify the school's role in dealing with chemical dependency within special education, and with the task assignment developed by the divisions' staff. The Task Force then developed its own set of goals and objectives, based on its understanding of the responsibility it had been given. In order to accomplish its work, the Task Force divided into three sub-committees:

1. Identification;
2. Intervention; and
3. Personnel preparation/staff development.

The sub-committees then refined their own tasks by developing their own goals and objectives which they, in turn, presented to the full Task Force for discussion and agreement. The goals were:

1. Identification
    a. develop guidelines and criteria for identification of FAS/FAE, chemical dependency and affected populations;
    b. develop procedures for screening/distinguishing between special education and/or chemical health issues;
    c. develop procedures for diagnosis for chemically dependent and affected children; clarify responsibilities and limitations of schools in this process;
    d. identify school, community and state resources for identification and assessment; and
    e. identify legal issues around confidentiality and mandatory reporting; develop recommended procedures to deal with these issues.
2. Intervention
    a. identify existing curriculum materials and strategies for developing materials within schools;
    b. clarify roles and responsibilities of schools, communities and parents for the provision of intervention services;
    c. develop recommendations for funding of intervention services to chemically dependent or affected children;
    d. develop policies and procedures for schools to use in referring chemically dependent and affected students for intervention services;
    e. identify legal issues and develop recommendations regarding resolution of these issues, to include at least:
        confidentiality
        parental intoxification
        mandatory reporting;

f. develop procedures for schools to address reintegration of students and follow-up services following the provision of treatment services outside the school setting.

3. Personnel Preparation/Staff Development

    a. identify existing training resources and what is needed for training and education;

    b. develop linkages and plan with University of Maine, Colleges of Education, to provide training in an undergraduate and graduate program;

    c. identify different levels of training/education needs:

        1. university level
        2. local level (toward developing comprehensive program)
            a. institute training/team development
            b. basic awareness (general) training
            c. expertise in identification (for recertification credit)
            d. expertise in more advanced assessment, group skills, referral to treatment, and linking with treatment
            e. community involvement
            f. parent groups

    d. identify ways to finance training/maintenance of groups and services in schools;

    e. consider special training for special education

        1. type of training
        2. method of training
        3. statewide training

    f. local in-service (developing standards for this)

The Task Force set December 1985 as the date for completion of a report of their findings and recommendations. The sub-committees met every month to develop their findings and recommendations. These were then presented, discussed and finalized at each bi-monthly meeting of the Task Force. At a final full-day meeting of the Task Force in November, the findings and recommendations of the sub-committees were reviewed, revised, and approved.

Christine Bartlett and Bruce Spang accepted the responsibility for editing the work of the Task Force, and writing it in its final form.

II. FINDINGS/RECOMMENDATIONS

IDENTIFICATION, ASSESSMENT AND REFERRAL

Finding: School Administrative Units (SAU's) have not received consistent assistance from DECS to distinguish between special education and chemical dependency related problems, in order to determine the appropriate way to provide educational services to students. There are no consistent procedures in place to identify and refer students with chemical abuse problems for clinical evaluation and treatment. As a result, procedures for identifying students with chemical abuse problems may vary widely across the state. There are differences as well in whether educational services are provided through special education, or refused until the chemical abuse is treated.

It is often difficult to distinguish between behavior related to chemical abuse problems and behavioral problems which constitute a need for special education. Because of the difficulty in making this distinction, students may be receiving inappropriate educational services, or pressure may be brought against SAU's to provide special education services to students who may actually be in need of rehabilitation and treatment for chemical abuse problems.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act requires that alcohol or other drug addicted students have access to a free appropriate public education, but does not say that this must be special education as this is defined in P.L. 94-142. SAU's need to have a mechanism to evaluate students who may have alcohol or other drug related problems, and to determine what would constitute an appropriate education program for students identified as having these problems.

Recommendation: That DECS require SAU's to develop policies and procedures for identifying and referring students with chemical abuse problems to appropriate service providers.

A detailed description of a comprehensive chemical dependency program which could assist SAU's in developing these is included in the new publication from the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services, "Assisting Adolescents with Alcohol and Drug Problems: Guidelines for Treatment Providers and Schools." In addition, the policies and procedures should address the relationship between the chemical abuse program and special education. This portion should include the following:

a. Specific criteria for referral to the P.E.T. or to the chemical abuse team for assessment services.

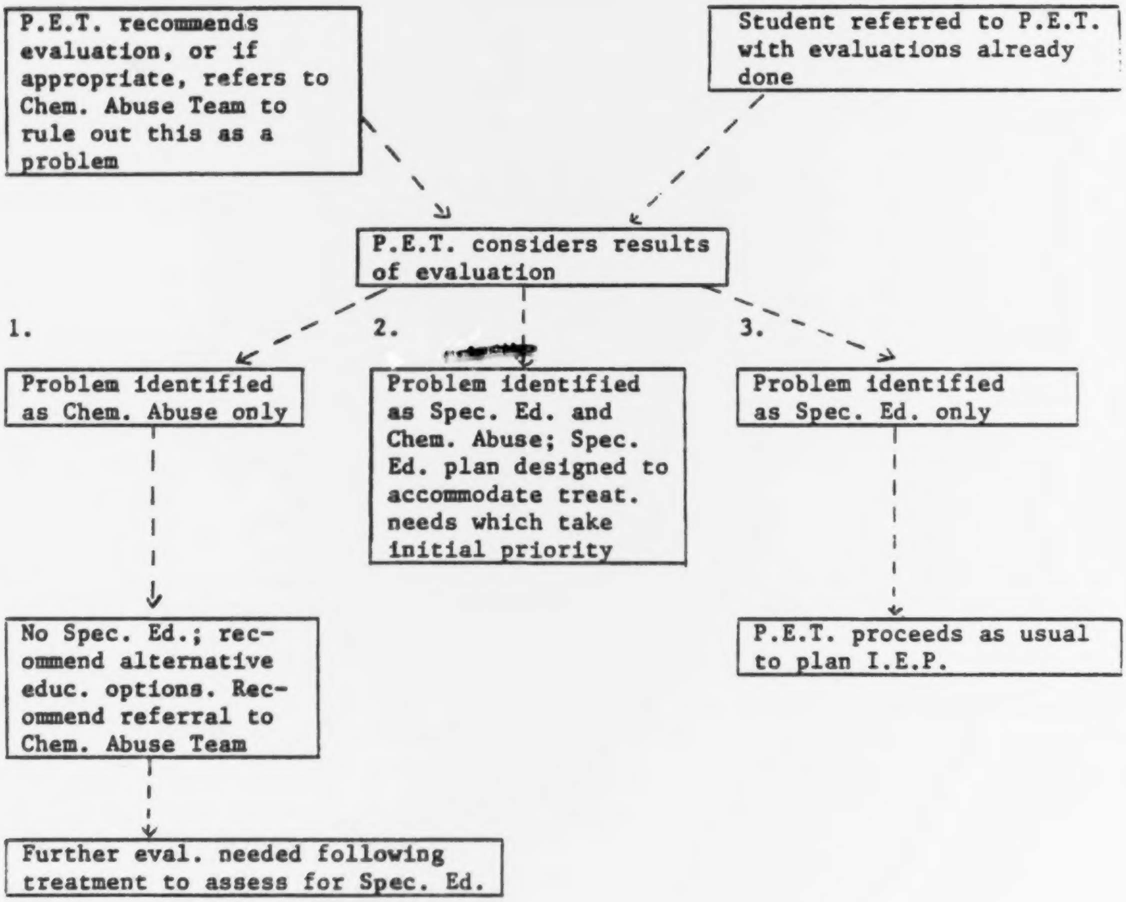
For students with no prior involvement with special education, initial criteria for chemical abuse referral would include: (1) drastic changes in academic performance, based on review of the educational history; (2) abnormal behavior (not previously observed) for the given age of the child; and (3) community or school indicators of chemical use or problems.

b. An individual and/or group designated as the chemical abuse team, to receive referrals if chemical health problems are suspected.

The designated individual/group should be trained in initial non-clinical assessment methods, which assess whether there is a likelihood that chemical health issues exist. Based on the assessment, a decision would be made whether to recommend that the student needed to be referred for a clinical evaluation to determine the extent of the problem, and the recommendations for treatment of the problem. (For detail on a recommended referral process, see section on Identification in "Assisting Adolescents With Alcohol and Drug Problems." If the assessment does not indicate a chemical health problem, the student should be referred to the P.E.T. for further evaluation to determine whether h-/she may require special education.

c. A consultant (Chemical Health Coordinator, Substance Abuse Counselor, or designated individual in b.) identified to be involved with the P.E.T. on an as needed basis, so that chemical health problems can be identified early and referred for appropriate action.

d. The following referral process when the student is already receiving special education, or when the referring individual has reason to believe that special education should be involved:


P.E.T. recommends evaluation, or if appropriate, refers to Chem. Abuse Team to rule out this as a problem
Student referred to P.E.T. with evaluations already done
P.E.T. considers results of evaluation
1.
2.
3.
Problem identified as Chem. Abuse only
Problem identified as Spec. Ed. and Chem. Abuse; Spec. Ed. plan designed to accommodate treat. needs which take initial priority
Problem identified as Spec. Ed. only
No Spec. Ed.; recommend alternative educ. options. Recommend referral to Chem. Abuse Team
P.E.T. proceeds as usual to plan I.E.P.
Further eval. needed following treatment to assess for Spec. Ed.

e. A special education staff member on the chemical abuse team, to assess the possible need for special education services in addition to, or instead of, chemical abuse treatment.

f. Evaluation reports be required to distinguish between chemical dependency and/or other behavioral problems.

> When an evaluator is assessing for chemical health problems, the report needs to show the relationship between the chemical dependency and the student's ability to learn and function in school, including whether the student may require special education as a result of the chemical use. If the student is an identified special education student, the report should discuss the relationship between the chemical dependency and the student's handicapping condition, including the need for modification to the existing I.E.P.

INTERVENTION

Finding: Education and chemical dependency services often are not coordinated in such a way that school and treatment providers are monitoring students' progress during and/or after treatment, and thereby assuring an appropriate education. The result is that SAU's may be totally uninformed about the educational needs of students during treatment (unless requested to provide tutoring), or unaware that the student re-entering school may require educational assistance in order to reintegrate successfully into the educational program. Many SAU's have no formal (or informal) policies or procedures to assist them in determining appropriate educational services either during treatment or following treatment, even if they are aware that the student is, or has been, receiving chemical dependency treatment. DECS has not provided SAU's with a clear and consistent policy regarding their responsibility for the education of students with chemical health problems, not has it provided them with sufficient assistance to develop their own policies and procedures related to this.

Recommendations:

I. That DECS should develop a policy statement which clearly states that SAU's are responsible for providing for a free appropriate public education for students with chemical dependency problems. The policy should articulate the distinction between the SAU's educational responsibility and the parent/guardian/medical responsibility for treatment.

II. That DECS needs to provide all SAU's with assistance in developing local policies and procedures to address the provision of educational services to students during and/or after chemical dependency treatment. These policies and procedures should include:

a. A DECS reaffirmation of the responsibility of SAU's to inform parents of their child's right to a free appropriate public education under Section 504, as well as any rights they may have under P.L. 94-142.

DECS should develop a recommended statement and procedure for SAU's to use in meeting this requirement.

b. A process for developing an educational plan for the student during treatment.

When the student has already been receiving special education, the student's I.E.P. should be modified, if necessary, to address any additions or changes (e.g., change in location, reduction in instructional hours, different goals or objectives) which relate to the student's treatment program.

If the student is newly identified as needing special education as well as chemical dependency treatment, the P.E.T. should develop an I.E.P. to reflect this.

If the student is not identified as needing special education, the chemical abuse team should be responsible for developing an educational plan appropriate to meet the student's needs during treatment. This plan should take into account such issues as the need for a modified schedule to allow for the student's participation in treatment, changes in courses or program, the possibility of extra or remedial assistance, an in-school support group, a non-special education alternative education program, adult education, etc.

In either case (special education, no special education), an individual needs to be identified to coordinate the educational program with the treatment provider(s).

c. A process for developing a re-entry plan for the student returning to school following treatment.

If the student is involved with special education before or during treatment, the P.E.T. is responsible for reviewing the I.E.P. and making any needed modifications. If it appears that a student may require special education following treatment, the student should be referred to the P.E.T. to determine whether special education is required and to develop the I.E.P. if appropriate, or to recommend an alternative education plan if special education is not required.

If special education is not indicated, the chemical abuse team is responsible for developing an appropriate education plan for the student, designed to assist the student to reintegrate successfully into the school setting. In each case, an individual should be assigned responsibility for monitoring the implementation of the education plan, in order to assure its continuing appropriateness.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Finding: SAU's generally are unaware of the confidentiality regulations pertaining to the field of chemical dependency treatment, and how these may differ from educational confidentiality requirements under the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act. As a result, educators often are unsure about the type and range of information that can be discussed regarding a student's chemical use, and are equally unsure of who is qualified to discuss the information, or under what circumstances information may be shared.

Recommendations:

I. The DECS needs to develop guidelines to explain how special education programs can handle students with chemical dependency related problems.

> Any client's right to confidentiality needs to be respected. The client and his/her parents must approve the discussion of any information in the P.E.T. or with another agency. The local special education program needs to develop procedures for discussing and distributing information.

II. That DECS needs to develop guidelines about how a school provides tutorial services for students in residential chemical dependency programs. A mechanism for sharing the treatment plan needs to be developed.

III. That special education programs need to be informed of the predictable cognitive, emotional and memory problems associated with the post withdrawal syndrome, which may hamper learning.

> Many of the characteristics of post withdrawal syndrome appear to be quite similar to learning or emotional disabilities, yet generally will disappear within six months to a year after initial treatment. Teachers need to be apprised about the best way to manage students with these characteristics, and to follow a plan of relapse prevention for them in a confidential manner.

IV. Special education program providers need to understand the different laws related to chemical dependency problems which serve to protect the rights of individuals and restrict the ability of treatment providers to share information about a client.

PERSONNEL PREPARATION/STAFF DEVELOPMENT

Finding I: Undergraduate and graduate students in education, special education, administration and guidance counseling are not given adequate preparation to recognize or deal with problems related to chemical dependency. Presently, only a few courses are offered on chemical health, and they are elective courses. Guidance counselors receive no specialized training in the area of chemical health, but often are required to deal with chemically dependent or affected students in the schools. Teachers and special educators receive little training to understand the effects of the disease of chemical dependency, but frequently are faced with chemical health related problems in the classroom. As a result, students may be referred for special education services, without proper identification of a major problem in their lives. Administrators may have received no guidance in managing the problems of chemically dependent students, yet must deal with it in their schools.

Recommendation I: That DECS should work with the University of Maine College of Education to develop additional courses at both the undergraduate and graduate level, to provide students with adequate information about chemical dependency. DECS should also give serious consideration to including coursework on chemical health as one of the requirements for certification in all fields. Courses offered should include the following information:

a. Awareness of the disease of chemical dependency and its effect on the family;

b. Awareness of the characteristics of chemically dependent students and of affected students;

c. The roles of administrators, teachers and guidance in dealing with chemical dependency problems;

d. Assessment training (for teachers or other school personnel who will be involved in non-clinical assessment of students suspected of having chemical dependency problems);

e. Legal responsibilities of schools and teachers; and

f. Learning and behavior patterns for chemically dependent and affected students.

Additional and more specific skill development courses need to be available and required for school personnel who are to assume responsibility for identifying, referring, or working with chemically dependent or affected students within the school setting.

Finding II: Most postsecondary schools do not have comprehensive programs to deal with chemical dependency problems. No comprehensive primary and secondary prevention programs exist at the postsecondary level, such as those which are being developed in sixty-three school/community team sites. As a result, students who have received support for chemical-free lifestyles in secondary school, do not receive the same support when they enter postsecondary education. In addition, students who could obtain help for their chemical health problems in elementary and secondary schools will not find the same assistance available at postsecondary level programs.

Recommendation II: That DECS, through the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services, should offer assistance to postsecondary schools to create comprehensive primary and secondary prevention programs, that provide services for those in need of help and support to remain chemically free. In order to implement this recommendation, DECS would need to hire an additional consultant to work with such a postsecondary level program.

Finding III: The Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services is the only state agency currently providing formal inservice education with follow-up and technical assistance to educators in the area of chemical dependency. These basic inservice programs are not aimed directly toward the needs of special educators.

Some private agencies offer special training (in chemical dependency) for educators. They may offer recertification courses or training for school staff who want to know about residential drug treatment programs. No formal training is presently offered to help:

> educators and special educators distinguish between students who are manifesting chemical dependency problems and students who have other learning or behavioral problems;
>
> educators and special educators know how to refer students suspected of having a chemical dependency related problem to the proper school or community resources; or
>
> educators and special educators provide consistent and educationally appropriate services to recovering students who return to school.

Recommendation III: That the Divisions of Special Education and of Alcohol and Drug Education Services should work together to develop and provide inservice education programs which will improve the understanding of: chemical dependency issues; the role of the schools in general, and special education in particular, in dealing with these issues; and similarities and differences between the characteristics of students with chemical dependency related problems and special education needs.

Finding IV: Many adults in local communities are unaware of the influence of chemical dependency problems on education. As a result, they may not understand or support SAU's efforts to develop comprehensive school/community chemical dependency programs.

Recommendation IV: That DECS should encourage Adult Education Programs to support courses that deal with a basic awareness of chemical dependency and its effects on the family. DECS should also support local recertification courses for teachers which provide education on the problems of chemical dependency and its relationship to education.

Finding V: Some treatment providers offer inservice training to school personnel about chemical dependency prevention and intervention. While some of this training is consistent with the training provided through the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services, some of it is not, nor is it focused on assisting schools to develop and implement a comprehensive alcohol and drug prevention program. SAU's may be receiving inconsistent and confusing messages about the most effective way to manage chemical dependency related problems.

Recommendation V: That DECS, through the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services, should coordinate training provided to schools with the Maine Association of Substance Abuse Programs, in order to assure that educational programs provided are pertinent and relevant to the SAU's needs.

III. ISSUES NEEDING FURTHER STUDY

Although many of the recommendations can be implemented by providing school staff with information or training, several of the issues that emerged in the task force discussion require more research and study. Four major topics that demand more study are:

1. Specialized treatment for handicapped populations
2. Specialized curriculum material for the handicapped
3. The Department's position on responding to students with Fetal Alcohol Syndrome or Fetal Alcohol Effects
4. Assessment and referral of affected students--the school's role

1. Specialized Treatment for Handicapped Populations

When handicapped students are identified as needing treatment for chemical dependency, schools need to have treatment providers who can serve the students. Presently, students who are deaf or learning disabled have difficulty receiving appropriate treatment. Students with other handicapping conditions need to have access to treatment. If specialized treatment is offered for handicapped children, special education, along with mental health and treatment providers, will need to modify existing programs and determine the training needs of treatment providers who serve the students. To address this issue, a special study group comprised of Special Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation, and Human Services personnel should be established. The Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation has already developed a pilot project to look at assessment and referral of handicapped individuals. A study group to build on their work would be a natural extension of this project.

2. Specialized Curriculum Material for Handicapped Children

The curriculum in alcohol and other drug prevention is being developed or piloted in Maine schools. But there is no curriculum material designed to meet the needs of handicapped children. It is recommended that Special Education, Mental Health and Mental Retardation and the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services meet to discuss how to modify and change the existing -- or soon to be released -- curriculum to meet the needs of handicapped students.

3. DECS' Response to Students With FAS/FAE

Children who have been diagnosed as having Fetal Alcohol Syndrome seem to have many of the central nervous system disorders commonly associated with special education students. Hyperactivity, attention deficit disorders, and emotional disturbances can be manifestations of FAS and/or FAE as well as special education identifications.

To ascertain what type of testing would be appropriate or necessary in determining an educational plan for such students, DECS needs to do more research into the relationship of FAS/FAE to special education. Presently, the Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation is providing education on this problem. The Eunice Shriver Foundation in Boston, Massachusetts, has done pioneer work in development of the assessment instruments and treatment for these children. DECS needs to assess if this work is germane to special education or if it is more appropriately treated as a medical issue.

4. Assessment of Affected Children

Since the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services is piloting the Children Are People curriculum, which provides younger children with information on chemical dependency, and since this new awareness has helped some youngsters to identify themselves as affected, DECS needs to determine what the school's role is in the assessment of affected children. Through self-identification many children are (with the consent of at least one parent or guardian) becoming involved in support groups. However, some children may need more assistance. In these cases, what sort of assessment and treatment should be offered to the child? This is a question which applies to schools and treatment providers because it involves the parents' rights to choose what types of services should be given to their child. A study group should be established to discuss this issue. It should be composed of personnel from treatment providers, Human Services, parents, Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services and Special Education, and should be charged with developing recommendations for policy and responsibility, to be given to DECS for consideration.

IV. SUMMARY

The Task Force on Chemical Dependency and Special Education makes recommendations in six major areas:

- Collaboration of Special Education with local comprehensive alcohol and other drug prevention programs;
- Development of local policy and procedures for dealing with students who have chemical dependency problems;
- Development of a vehicle for identification, assessment, referral, and follow-up of students with chemical dependency related problems;
- Development of procedures in the special education identification process to deal with chemical dependency issues;
- Collaboration between the two Divisions in providing training to regular and special education staff in dealing with chemical dependency related issues; and
- Development of a plan to work with the University of Maine to provide education to educators about chemical dependency issues consistent with the training provided through the Division of Alcohol and Drug Education Services.

These six major recommendations require more work by the Divisions. The two Divisions need to develop a manual with specific suggestions or recommendations for special educators which clarifies their role in dealing with students who have chemical dependency related issues. This manual should be a companion to "Assisting Adolescents with Alcohol and Drug Problems: Guidelines for Treatment Providers and Schools." This information will need to be shared with special educators and other school personnel who are already working with chemical dependency issues. Statewide training needs to be done to help the two systems work together to develop consistent policies and procedures for dealing with students. As the two Divisions collaborate in formulating guidelines, SAU's will become more capable of providing timely and appropriate assistance to students with chemical dependency problems.

APPENDIX 1

DEFINITIONS

1. Abuser is an individual experiencing problems resulting from or compounded by the use of alcohol and/or other drugs.

2. Addiction is compulsive drug use (including alcohol) characterized by an overwhelming involvement with the use of a drug, the securing of its supply, and a high tendency to relapse after withdrawal.

3. Adolescent Intervention is the process of intervening in the cycle of adolescent use and abuse of alcohol and other drugs. It involves several steps which often culminate in the adolescent seeking and obtaining treatment. These steps include (1) identification, (2) nonclinical assessment, (3) referral, (4) clinical evaluation, (5) treatment, and (6) post-treatment care.

4. Affected - those who grow up in a home where one or more of the family members is chemically dependent (either active or recovering). The extent to which they are affected (i.e., take on the pathology of the ill person) depends on the stage of the disease of the chemically dependent person and the length of time spent in that environment.

5. Chemical Dependency is a disease which is primary, progressive, chronic and, if not arrested, fatal. It is characterized by physical and/or psychological addiction to mood-altering chemicals and pathologically affects everyone who is in a primary relationship with the ill person.

6. Chemical Health is a positive and comprehensive approach to chemical use issues and problems. Chemical health contributes to general health and is technically defined as a state of spiritual, physical, mental, emotional, and social well-being that results in appropriate decisions about chemical use and non-use.

7. Chemical Health Coordinator serves as the coordinator of a school administrative unit's primary and secondary alcohol and other drug prevention program. The coordinator's major functions are to educate to administrate, to consult and to provide services, excluding treatment, on or about chemical health issues. The position is classified as a "consulting teacher specialist."

8. Clinical Evaluation is the process of evaluating the findings of assessment and defining the nature and severity of the chemical health problem, if any, and determining the appropriate level of treatment.

   The evaluation covers the following areas:

   a. Impact on the individual - the physical, psychological, and social manifestations of the individual's chemical abuse;

   b. Motivation to change - the individual's willingness to accept treatment and make use of the resources available;

   c. Support systems available - the roles which family members, friends and peers, the school, and community might play in the individual's recovery.

   d. Services available - what treatment components are available to serve the individual.

9. Confidentiality is the legal assurance that an individual's right to privacy will not be violated. It regulates and, therefore, limits communication between individuals and organizations.

10. Discharge Plan is composed of (1) an educational plan, (2) a home-based plan, and (3) a plan for continued recovery, and (4) outlines the steps to be taken after completion of the treatment program or modality.

11. Experimental User is an individual who is initiating use of alcohol and/or other mood-altering drugs with no established patter of use.

12. Harmfully Involved is when a person experiences harm or pain due to his/her use or the use of someone close to him/her.

13. Identification is the process whereby school personnel determine that they cannot handle a problem with a student and that they, therefore, refer to the appropriate school substance abuse team, program coordinator, and/or consultant.

14. Intake is a process of admission when a client is admitted to a specific modality of treatment. In this process, payment of services is agreed upon.

15. Intermediate Residential Rehabilitation is the same as short-term residential rehabilitation but treatment is for approximately six months.

16. Nonclinical Assessment is the process of determining if a student might have a chemical health related problem.

17. Non-Residential Rehabilitation is treatment provided in a highly structured and intensive program of education and counseling on a non-residential basis for approximately four weeks.

18. Outpatient Counseling/Treatment is provided through a series of counseling sessions of approximately one hour duration on a non-residential basis. Its goal is to achieve and maintain sobriety by assisting the abusing or chemically dependent and/or recovering person (1) to better understand his/her addiction and the potential options and (2) to develop the decision-making skills necessary to address his/her chemical dependency.

19. Parent Education Groups are structured groups that introduce parents to basic principles of chemical dependency, enabling, and the family disease using films and small group discussion. From these time limited groups, parents are referred to other self-help groups such as Al-Anon or "Tough Love" groups for actual on-going support and skill building.

20. Primary Prevention includes purposeful strategies designed to promote personal (emotional, mental, physical, spiritual, and social) growth of individuals and to strengthen the aspects of the community environment that are supportive to them in order to preclude, forestall, or impede the development of alcohol and other drug problems. The primary target population is comprised of those who are non-users and non-affected, and secondarily, those who are affected non-users.

21. Post-Treatment Care is a service designed to assist the individual who has terminated problem alcohol and other drug use and successfully completed initial treatment to maintain sobriety through advocacy and support. This service is often referred to as "aftercare."

22. Referral is the process of making formal contact with a treatment provider.

23. Release of Information Forms (ROI) authorize an organization to release personal records to community agencies where such records are controlled by right to privacy regulations (see "confidentiality" section, page 26-29).

24. Secondary Prevention includes purposeful strategies for managing chemical problems when the symptoms first present themselves and are relatively easy to correct through individual intervention and community support systems. The primary target population is comprised of those who are harmfully involved (experiencing early problems directly related to chemical use) and those who are affected.

25. Short-Term Residential Rehabilitation is treatment provided in a highly structured and intense program of education and counseling on a residential basis for approximately four weeks. Its goal is to assist the chemically dependent person in the achievement and/or maintenance of sobriety.

26. Substance Abuse Team is a multi-disciplinary team that reviews alcohol and other drug related cases that are referred within the school. The team's function is to make recommendations for disciplinary and nonclinical assessment, referral, and follow-up of students.

27. Support Groups provide a safe environment in a school for expressing a sense of belonging, and equally as important, serve as a learning laboratory to gain self-acceptance and social skills. Support groups provide a structured setting in which children and adolescents can address problems and ambivalent feelings about decisions they must make around alcohol and other drug use and other difficult issues.

28. Tertiary Prevention includes purposeful strategies for managing chemical problems determined to be harmfully involved or in one of the dependency stages that requires formal outpatient or inpatient treatment and linkages with community support systems to ensure ongoing recovery and improved quality of health and life. The primary target population includes those who are dependent and members of their families.

29. Three Populations refers to the three distinct populations of school students and adults: (1) the experimenter, user, harmfully involved, and chemically dependent population; (2) the affected population (those suffering as a result of a family member's chemical dependency); and (3) the non-user and non-affected population.

30. Treatment Services are designed to (1) terminate problems of alcohol and other drug use and prevent the continued progression to chemical dependency and/or (2) achieve and maintain sobriety.

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RESULTS OF THE USE OF TOTAL COMMUNICATION IN THE BIRTH-THRU-THREE PROGRAM TO FACILITATE VERBAL COMMUNICATION DEVELOPMENT

The Little Tennessee Valley Educational Cooperative (LTVEC) is a chartered nonprofit organization that provides services, primarily through the local school systems, to children and families in three rural East Tennessee counties located in the Appalachian region. In 1981, LTVEC was awarded a grant under U.S. Office of Education's Handicapped Children's Early Education Programs to develop and demonstrate a comprehensive educational program for birth through three-year-old severely handicapped children and their families in a rural setting. Designated the "Rural Preschool Services Model Project", the program received three years of federal funding which have been followed by three years of state and local funding for continuing service and research (major funding sources included Tennessee Department of Mental Health & Mental Retardation, United Way, and Monroe County Schools). Now entering its seventh year, the program, now known simply as "Birth-thru-Three", will provide comprehensive educational services to at least 16 seriously handicapped children in two rural communities.

The delivery model of the Birth-thru-Three program incorporates interlocking community-based centers with a regional agency (LTVEC), under the administrative guidance of an Advisory Council. The impetus of the program is to provide highly qualified professional services to the targeted children and families within their home communities in a cost-effective manner.

The delivery model was originally implemented in two sites (Blount and Monroe Counties, TN), with a third site opened in the second year of the project (Loudon County, TN). The year's delay in opening the third site was to enable the lessons learned from the first two to be applied to it. Thus, opening the third site became a refinement process. Over the succeeding years, further refinements have been made, increasing the cost-effectiveness of the program. Presently, two community based centers are in operation: one in Blount County, serving 10 children; and one in Loudon County, serving six children.

Each community-based center has two basic components: direct services from highly qualified professionals to the children; and a Parent Information Center (PIC) that informs, trains, and utilizes the skills of the parents.

The PIC in each county is based in the Birth-thru-Three centers. Staffing is a cooperative effort of the regular Birth-thru-Three staff and parent volunteers. The three basic components of the PIC are providing parents with information about their rights, providing information to parents about where and how to get other services as needed, and the coordination of specialized training for parents such as providing respite care and extended family interactions.

Home-based intervention is offered in addition to center-based when it is appropriate to the family's needs. The home sessions focus on training the child, parents, and families in specific skills, or on parent support and emotional counseling. Most home sessions are carried out by the coordinator/school psychologists.

Direct services to the children at each center are provided by a center coordinator/school psychologist, a lead teacher, two teaching assistants, a physical therapist, an occupational therapist, a speech-language pathologist, and a teacher of the visually impaired. The coordinator, lead teacher, and teaching assistants are assigned to a specified center, while the other professional staff members work at both centers. The coordinators work together on administrative issues which affect both centers. The Birth-thru-Three program itself has no full-time employees, though some of the staff members are full-time with LTVEC.

A focus on utilizing highly trained multi-professionals is based on the assumption that programming for severely handicapped children requires the skill and expertise of a variety of well-trained specialists. Only the highly trained educationally oriented specialist can be expected to possess the complex skills required for effective intervention. The sharing of skills across professional boundaries and the maintenance of a professional and emotional support nextwork that exists among the staff members are maximized by the cooperative structure. Professionals and paraprofessionals consult with each other to insure continuity in each child's program across all disciplines. Each of the teaching assistants and the lead teacher are trained to work with one member of the professional staff, becoming an "expert" in a particular discipline. That expertise is shared with all staff members so that the most effective methods for meeting the child's needs can be discovered.

Eligibility for the program requires meeting one of the following criteria: 1) a medical diagnosis associated with mental retardation; 2) a diagnosis of moderate or greater mental retardation as determined by psychological assessment; 3) significant delays in at least two of the five targeted developmental areas (perceptuo-cognitive, fine motor, gross motor, speech/language, and personal-social/adaptive). There is no direct financial charge to the families. However, families are expected to contribute to the program through transportation, donations of small supplies and snack foods, and volunteering in the center. The staff believes that the families who do make some investment in the program in these relatively small ways are the ones who are able to draw the most from the services offered to them.

The children attend the center based program in groups of 5 to 6 for two half-days each week. Each child has an individualized educational program (IEP) consisting of goals and objectives based upon his developmental levels in each of the five targeted areas (listed above). Developmental levels are determined based on comprehensive evaluations completed by the appropriate professionals. Those IEPs are carried out by the lead teacher and teaching assistants under the supervision of the professional staff. Each professional staff member designs the IEP and trains the paraprofessional in the target area associated with her area of specialty (i.e. school psychologist works with perceptuo-cognitive; physical therapist with gross motor, etc.). Each child sees each professional on the average of once every other week (variations depend on the child's individual needs). The center day is organized so that each child recieves one-on-one intervention in each target area as well as small group stimulation and incidental learning, especially in the areas of socialization and communication.

In a typical day, the children begin with supervised free-play until everyone arrives. This is followed by group music time with gesture songs. As seen in the video tapes, this is a good time for social interaction with both peers and adults. It also provides childern the opportunity to incidentally learn vocal and gesural imitation skills. After opening with music, individual intervention stations are conducted. Children change to new stations every 15 to 20 minutes. In the middle of the morning, snack time is conducted. This is a good time for speech and language stimulation and faciltiation in natural context. The children learn to make requests for desired snacks. Snack is followed by pottying and a short free-play time which provides the staff an opportunity to make naturalistic observations. Then more intervention stations are conducted. Finally, there is a group fine motor or tactile time, such as playing with beans or making a craft.

At snack time, Total Communication (TC) is used to facilitate verbal communication development. In the following description of the procedures used, three questions will be addressed:

(1). What is Total Communication?

(2). Why use Total Communication with hearing children?

(3). How is Total Communication used?

What is total communication? Very simply, total communication is the use of vocalizations, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, manual signs and speech. It is the total use of all avenues to communicate. Although speech is the ultimate goal, the focus is on interpersonal interaction and communication rather than on speech production. To model apropriate use of speech, spoken words always accompany the staff's manual signs and gestures.

Why use total communication? Even if a child is not using speech or imitating spoken words, it is important for him to be expected to express himself in some way. In Piaget's framework, the use of phenomenalistic procedures like a generalized excitement (a gross motor procedure) develops in stage 3 (at the 4 to 8 month levels). Simple gestural imitation also develops at that stage.

However, speech imitation in Piaget's framework does not develop until stages 4 and 5 (at the 8 to 12 and the 12 to 18 month levels). Thus, with this model, the use of gestures and gestural imitation develops earlier than speech imitation. In addition to earlier development, another advantage to the use of gestures and manual signs is that they can be prompted physically. The child's hand can be taken and shaped into the correct position. Even if the child is not imitating speech, gestures, or signs; signs and gestures can be physically prompted. In contrast, it is not practical to physically prompt speech. There is a final rationale for using manual signs in addition to gestures. Think of speech and language as being two complex tasks with language being the use of abstract symbols and speech being the complex motor behavior. A non-speech response mode can be used to break spoken language into its two components. First the use of abstract symbols (manual signs) is learned, and then the complex motor behavior (speech) is acquired. Note that gestures are comprised of less abstract symbols and less complex motor behaviors than manual signs. Thus, signs can bridge the gap from gestures into spoken language because they involve symbols that are more abstract than gestures but motor behaviors that are less complex than speech. After the child is able to use the more abstract symbols of manual sign language, it is hypothesized that it will be easier for him to learn the more complex motor act of the spoken word to represent the same vocabulary, using a new form for an old function. This hypotheis is dicussed in detail by Carrier (in Schiefelbusch and Hollis, eds., 1979).

How is total commucation used? Snack time is a natural time for the development of communication skills, especially those skills required to make requests for snack items. Types of possible communicative funcitons or pragmatic intentions include requesting objects, requesting actions, commenting on objects, commenting on actions, giving information, directing attention to self for communication, directing attention to self for social reasons, protesting, rejecting, greeting, parting, requesting information, and labeling objects. We de-emphasize the use of labels and comments and emphasize the use of requesting objects, which can be reinforced with a natural consequence (giving the object requested). Pragmatic need can be increased by having more than one snack item available so that the adult truly does not know which one the child wants. It is not necesary or even natural that a speech therapist be the only one providing stimulation. Speech and language stimulation and facilitation is provided by parents, teaching assistants, teachers, professionals in other disciplines, and even by peers. With a little training and practice it can be provided in a systematic way. It is suggested that a speech-language pathologist observe and record data periodically. Bloom and Lahey present a useful framework for systematizing the stimulation techniques. It is the use of new forms for old functions. That is, if a child uses one form for example, a gesture to request juice he is taught a new form, such as a manual sign or spoken word to make the same request. Thus, once a child indicates a desire even with an eye gaze, a gesture or a manual sign is prompted and a speech model is paired with the prompt. Vocalizations and speech are gradually shaped through successive approximations, and the gestures or signs extinguish naturally. A heirarchy of lower level forms to higher level forms follows:

1. reach - vocalize
2. physical manipulation of adult - touch adult's hand
3. alternate gaze between object and adult
4. generalized excitement - gross motor procedure with arms and legs
5. demand pat
6. point to spot, as if to say "put it there"

7. hold out cup
8. "gimme" gesture
9. point to desired object
10. point to self
11. idiosyncratic gestures or signs
12. conventional manual signs
13. vocalization paired with sign
14. speech paired with sign
15. speech

How are new forms taught? Minimal prompting procedures and differential reinforcement is used. First, a need for communication is created. The juice and cookies, etc. are out of the children's reach. One staff member is the provider of the snack items. She has them close to her; she comments that she has them; she holds them up and looks expectantly to see if anyone will ask for one. She creates a need for communication and the pauses. This provides the child an opportunity to make a request. Other staff members or peers model the request in natural context. A more developed child may ask for juice or another staff member may ask for a cookie. If the child does not make a request, a verbal instruction is given, such as "tell Kathy", or prompts (imitative or physical) for gestures and signs are provided. Thus, the child does recieve food. He does not go without getting a snack. Instead, a staff member helps him to make a request. To prevent interupting the conversational turn taking between the child and the snack provider, instructions and prompts are provided by a second adult. In using miminal prompting procedures, instructions to imitate and imitative models are not intially provided. They are provided from a level of least assistance to most assistance as the more subtle stimuli have failed to elicit a response. The heirarchy is:

(1) model the behaviors in context
(2) provide imitative models
(3) provide instructions to imitate
(4) provide partial physcial prompts
(5) provide full manual guidance prompts

In addition, rather than telling a child he's wrong, natural consequences are provided. If he seems to want peanut butter, but says "fruit," he is given fruit. Finally, differential reinforecement is used to shape increased use of new forms. For example, if a child is consistently using nautral gestures and only occassionally uses manual signs, then the snack provider would "up the ante". She would "play dumb" and act like she had not understood the gesture. This provides the child an opportunity to use the manual signs. After he uses the sign (either spontaneously or in response to models and prompts), he receives the snack requested.

In the video tapes, remarkable situations are seen which the staff members turn into opprotunites to facilitate communication. Some missed or even mismanaged opportunities are also noted. It is important to see the successes and the failures to realize that it is not necessary to be perfect. Providing language stimulation in natural context seems to be both a science and an art. Practice is required. The childern may benefit from the staff's attempts even if they are not perfect. It is not unusual for adults to feel self-conscious when first attempting to provide language stimulation. It is hoped that reduction of pressure to do things "just right" will encourage them to begin. The tapes show both child and staff progress from September to May.

In summary, it is hypothesized that children benefit when they receive sytematic language stimulation in natural context, utilizing basic behaviorial principles to teach new forms for old functions. The emphasis is on communication and interpersonal interaction and facilitating the child's attempts to express requests successfully. The following American Sign Language vocabulary is utilized in the Birth-thru-Three program:

cup
napkin
spoon
wash
eat
drink
more
bathroom
fruit
apple
banana
cookie
cheese
nuts
cracker
juice
finished
want
book
shoes
hat
jump
music

Since the inception of the Birth-thru-Three program in 1981, data on the progress of the children enrolled has been maintained through a pre-test/post-test procedure. Research has been made a priority because of a belief in the importance of efficacy studies in early intervention. Philosophically, it has been accepted that the earlier appropriate intervention programs are initiated, the greater the handicapped child's chances of developing to fullest potential. Practitioners presume that changes can be made to occur in the child, the caregiver, the family, and the environment. However, whether specific abilities can be modified and to what extent is an empirical question rather than a philosophical one.

Adequate evaluation of intervention programs is difficult to achieve, not only because of the differences among the handicapped children, but also because the specific handicaps add even more variability. Therefore, it is difficult to establish scientifically adequate control groups that are comparable to groups of handicapped infants in any treatment program. In addition, there are ethical issues involved in balancing the need for further information in general, and in providing treatment. Although research methodology and ethical issues make efficacy research with handicapped infants difficult, such research must be conducted if professionals are to have confidence that various psychoeducational and/or therapeutic interventions are, in fact, therapuetic.

Therefore, the purpose of our on-going study is threefold:

1) To document the effectiveness of intervention with severely handicapped children in the present project. It is recognized that any intervention program has many components which contribute to the program's level of effectiveness. In this paper, only data collection and analysis of child progress is presented. No attempt is being made to generalize to the broader population.

2) To present practical strategies for data collection and analysis which attempt to address the need for more rigorously controlled studies. It is recognized that there is difficulty in balancing the need to provide appropriate intervention services and to obtain adequate documentation of effectiveness. Possibly by sharing strategies, then the two goals will be more compatible.

3) To stimulate further research in the area of early intervention with severely handicapped children.

Pre-test/post-test data was taken on all children. The Program for Early Attention to Children with Handicaps (PEACH) was used. Testing was done when the child entered the program or at the beginning of the intervention period, and repeated when the child left the program or at the end of the intervention period.

Testing was done in each developmental area by the associated professional. That is, fine motor was done by the occupational therapist, gross motor by the physical therapist, language by the speech-language pathologist, cognitive and perceptual by the school psychologist, and personal-social by the lead teacher. (Personal-Social was completed by parent report.) Tester reliability was checked by bringing in qualified professionals not familiar with the children to retest, controlling for "teaching the test". All reliability correlations were above 0.90. In addditon, a validity study was conducted to correlate the PEACH with the Bayley Scales of Infant Development-Mental Scales. The cognition and language portions of the PEACH correlate signifacantly (above 0.90) with the Bayley. (Full information on the reliability and validity studies are available upon request.)

The data presented at this time cover only language skills for the 1986-87 school year. Twenty childern between the ages of 2.50 and 38 months were studied. Intervention included a center-based program for 3 1/2 hours, two days per week, plus individualized home support programs. Three of the children were classified as Down's Syndrome (2 moderately mentally retarded, 1 mildly mentally retarded). The remaining children were multihandicapped with combinations of cerebral palsy, mental retardation, blind/visual impairment, deafness, autism, Spina Bifida, hydrocephaly, microcephaly, Soto Syndorme, Prader-Willi Syndrome, hemiplegia resulting from prenatal stroke, meconium aspiraton at birth, and frontal lobe hemorrhage at birth.

This study is a quasi-experimental design. Rather than using a control group, each child's "expected gains" were compared to his actual gains. Therefore, each child served a his own control. Expected gains were determined by dividing the pretest developmental age by the pretest chronological age, then multiplying by the number of months of intervention. For example, if a 4 month old child has a developmental age 2 months, and is in the program 7 months, his expected gain for the 7 month period is 3.50 months. It is assumed that successful intervention will result in actual gains significantly higher than expected gains.

Based on speech and language functioning at the beginning of the intervention period, each child's severity of handicap was classified as either normal-at risk (based on medical diagnosis), mild, moderate, severe or profound. As measured by the Language Skills portion of the PEACH, the percentage of expected gains achieved by each group was determined. As seen in the appendix, the normal-at risk group (N=3) achieved 111% of its expected gain; the mild group (N=1) achieved 165%, the severe group (N=4) achieved 233%, and the profound group (N=4) achieved 87%. Another child (CA=14 months), classified as mild, was pre- and post-tested but received no intervention (parent did not enroll him in the program); he achieved only 65% of his expected gain. Overall, the group of twenty childern who received intervention achieved 164% of its expected gain.

The results reported tend to support the following trends:

(1) The groups with moderate and severe language impairments appeared to receive

the most benefit from the program. Paired-comparison T-Tests (Stastical Analysis System-SAS) are significant for the total group of twenty subjects at the .0219 level of confidence and for the moderate and severe group combined (N = 12) at the .0054 level.

(2) The "at risk" group (N=3) maintained normal language development. It is felt that these families benefited by receiving emotional support and by gaining knowledge about normal language development and language facilitation techniques to be used in the home.

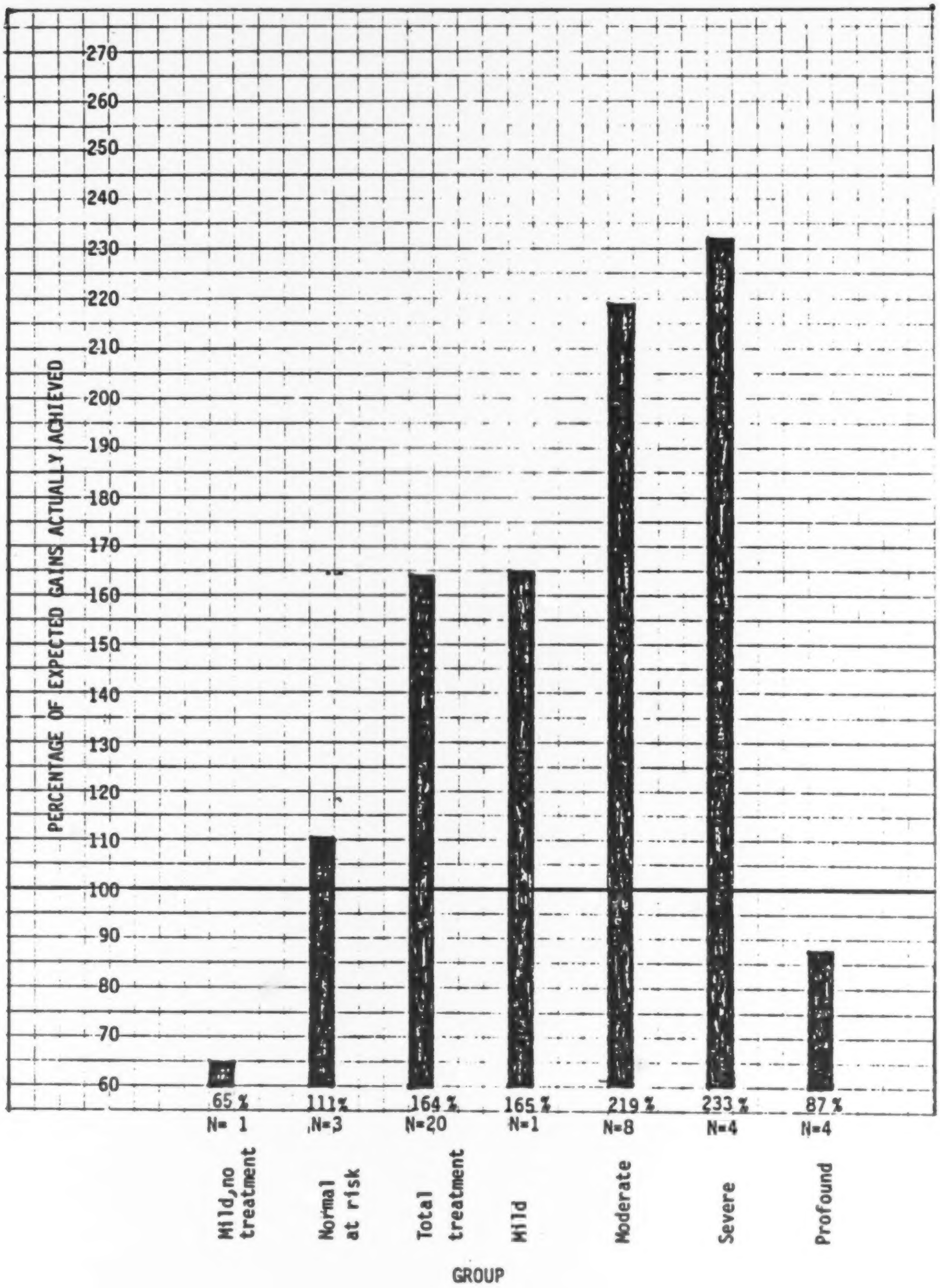
(3) The one mildly handicapped child treated made substantial gain (165%), while the one mildly handicapped child not treated achieved only 65% of his expected gain.

(4) Although the profound group (N = 4) attained only 87% of its expected gain, the average developmental rate remained essentially the same (0.27, fall; 0.26, spring). During the preceeding summer (no intervention because the program is funded for eight month school year), the average developmental rate decreased from 0.32 (spring) to 0.27 (fall).

(5) The 15 month old child who made the most gain (1657%) was a moderately handicapped child whose life had been threatened by SIDS (Sudden Infant Death Syndrome) several times. At pre-test his language age was 3.50 months (developmental rate = 0.23); at post-test his language age was 18.75 months (developmental rate = 1.04). During this time, it appears that his mother was able to develop emotionally from primarily having a concern for sustaining life to also being able to emphasize normal development. She learned to facilitate his language development by expecting him to communicate and by utilizing a heirarchy (tantrums, gestures, vocalications, spoken words) to teach new forms for old functions. She learned these techniques by observing snack time and the intervention stations, and by conferring with the speech-language pathologist.

(6) The child in the moderate group who made the least gain (49%) is deaf. The PEACH (nor Bayley) does not adequately measure development of deaf children. As measured by an instrument designed for the deaf (Ski-Hi Language Development Scale), the child achieved 213% of his expected developmental gain. Although the PEACH is not the best yardstick for this child, it does appear to be an adequate instrument for gathering the group data which is essential for overall program evaluation and planning.

Some problems inherent to this and similar studies should be noted. First, it is extremely difficult to find a reliable instrument which is sensitive enough to pick up the changes in this very young, severely handicapped group. (The PEACH is in 1 month increments below 12 months developmental level, and 3 months thereafter.) Second, the N for this data is very small and the standard deviation is large. Given the nature of the population, it is suspected that a larger N will still have a large standard deviation. Third, the need for caution in interpreting the results is acknowledged, due to viable alternative explanations for findings. Continued refinement of the Birth-thru-Three intervention procedure, and research on the success of that intervention, is on-going. The regional cooperative administrative structure, coupled with the employment of highly qualified professional staff, appears to be a productive, cost-effective model for providing educational services to young handicapped children in rural areas.


PERCENTAGE OF EXPECTED GAINS ACTUALLY ACHIEVED
270
260
250
240
230
220
210
200
190
180
170
160
150
140
130
120
110
100
90
80
70
60
65 %
N= 1
111%
N=3
164 %
N=20
165 %
N=1
219 %
N=8
233 %
N=4
87 %
N=4
Mild, no treatment
Normal at risk
Total treatment
Mild
Moderate
Severe
Profound
GROUP

Subject	% of expected gain that was actually achieved	D.A. at pre-test (in months)	C.A. at pre-test (in months)	degree of language impairment	diagnosis
1.	1657	03.50	15	Mod	SIDS & DD
2.	460	13.33	31	Mod	DD (S/L, behavior, sensory integration)
3.	389	17.25	30	Mod	DD & mild CP
4.	386	04.75	28	P	Spina Bifida, Hydrocephaly
5.	379	17.25	37	Sev	DD (premature twin, mild MR)
6.	250	20.25	29	Sev	DD & Microcephaly
7.	230	20.25	38	Sev	Soto Syndrome
8.	165	34.50	38	Mild	Blind
9.	154	29.25	37	Mod	DD (premature twin)
10.	144	12.00	23	Mod	Down's Syndrome
11.	134	20.25	32	Mod	Down's Syndrome
12.	127	06.25	9	Sev	Low tone, 75% probability Prader-Willi
13.	113	19.50	18	Risk	Down's Syndrome
14.	100	30.00	29	Mod	Hemiplegia (pre-natal stroke)
15.	89	08.00	39	P	Multi (DD, physical, visual)
16.	67	03.75	2.5	Risk	frontal lobe hemorrhage at birth
17.	49	10.25	23	Mod	Deaf (severe hearing impairment with aid)
18.	43	21.00	12	Risk	low tone, meconium aspiration at birth
19.	22	14.25	34	P	CP
20.	0	09.25	33	P	Autistic
No intervention:					
1.	65	11.50	14	mild	DD, suspect neurological impairment

Risk=at risk for delay based on medical diagnosis
Mod=moderate
Sev = severe
P = profound
DD = developmental delay
S/L = speech and language
MR = mental retardation
CP = cerebral palsy
CA = chronological age
DA = developmental age (as measured by PEACH Language Scale)

FORMULAE AND EXAMPLE

Developmental age = age equivalent in months, based on a test score

Developmental rate (learning rate) = Developmental Age (DA) divided by Chronological Age (CA) in months

Expected Gains (predicted gains) = pre-test DA divided by CA multiplied by the number of months of intervention

Actual Gains = as measured by test scores, post-test DA minus pre-test DA

Percentage of expected gains actually attained (percentage achieved) = actual gains divided by expected gains multiplied by 100

Example:

pre-test : CA = 20 months; DA = 8 months

post-test: CA = 27 months; DA = 19 months

number of months of intervention (number of months between test administrations) = 7 months

Developmental Rate at pre-test = 8 divided by 20 = .40

Developmental Rate at post-test = 19 divided by 27 = .70

Actual Gains = 19 minus 8 = 11

Expected Gains = 8 divided by 20 multiplied by 7 = 2.8

Percentage of Gains Achieved = 11 divided by 2.8 times 100 = 393. Thus, the child attained 393% of the development expected based on his learning rate at the time of pre-test.

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Appreciation is expressed for statistical assistance received from the Bureau of Educational Research and Service at the University of Tennessee-Knoxville.

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Triangle Coalition for Science and Technology Education

The Triangle Coalition was initiated by the National Science Teachers Association in 1985 as a response to a strong local call for education reform of precollege science and technology education. The Triangle is supported by and composed of sixty national corporations, scientific and engineering societies, and education associations all with the common goal of improving precollege education for all students. The Triangle provides a forum for bringing the ideas, influence, and resources of a large number of national organizations to bear on the problem. The Triangle believes that if change is to occur and be sustained it must happen at the school district level with the teacher as the focus. Therefore, the Triangle acts in a decentralized manner to deliver services to the local level.

The Triangle coordinates three national projects: Local Alliance Networks, Elementary Science Education, and the National Balloon Launch during National Science Week. The Local Alliance Networks, the major project, is a grant from the Carnegie Corporation to promote the development of local action groups designed to bring together public and private sector influence at the community level to form alliances aimed at improving precollege science and technology education.

Through this project, the Triangle provides the following services: a clearinghouse of information on more than 200 existing alliances; a bimonthly newsletter, Alliance Network News, to facilitate the exchange of information, a consultants program to assist leaders to develop alliances, a handbook on How to Form and Operate a Local Alliance, regional conferences aimed at sharing practical strategies for alliance organizers, and a local section directory of the Triangle membership for local alliances. Most all of these services are available free or on a matching funds basis upon request.

It has now become clear that few a
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inequality of opportunity issue. A sma
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initiated this effort.

The Triangle wants to inform lead
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CONCURRENT SESSIONS

FRIDAY, OCTOBER 16, 1987

4:00 - 5:00 PM

E. Robert Stephens
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"The Rural Small School Superintendent: The Achilles Heel of School Improvement Efforts"

The main thesis of this paper is that the numerous and potentially meaningful school improvement initiatives underway in many states to enhance the state system of elementary-secondary education will succeed only to the extent that two things happen: we improve the quality of the large number of rural small school superintendents presently found (and who will continue to be found!) in most states which in turn is largely dependent on enhancing the quality of work life (QWL) for individuals who occupy these critical leadership positions in education.

The paper will first present a selected profile of the rural small school superintendent that will focus on: their estimated number, selected demographic characteristics, career patterns, and illustrative career routes.

The three dimensions of the quality of work life (QWL) construct of the rural small school superintendent that are to be emphasized are: the basic nature of the work of the rural small school superintendent (expected role and function, roles performed, and expected competencies and skills); the work environment of the rural small school superintendent (commonly recognized major strengths and weaknesses of rural small schools, and comparative data on the chronic problems of staffing and financing rural schools); and, the reward system available to the rural small school superintendent (design of pay, fringe benefits, and job security).

Also to be stressed is a discussion of "new" pressures on rural small schools that promise to further impact negatively on the QWL of the superintendent who is expected to provide the instructional and management direction for the school system.

The paper will conclude with a discussion of recommendations for the establishment of a set of comprehensive, integrated, and cohesive policies for consideration by local, state, and national organizations and agencies that are intended to improve the QWL of the rural small school superintendent and thus enhance his (and the occasional her!) effectiveness.

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A SUCCESSFUL STATE MODEL OF PARENT/PROFESSIONAL PARTNERSHIP IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Four years ago a comprehensive state model project was initiated through a federal grant in two states. Today the program is supported by federal, state and local funds with widespread implementation in four states, West Virginia, Virginia, Maryland and Kentucky. In this presentation, West Virginia educators and parents will share the essential elements of this parent/professional project and will describe the impact throughout the state and, particularly, in two sparsely populated rural county school systems.

Description of the Parent/School/Community Resource Project

The Virginia and West Virginia State Departments of Education collaborated with the Parent Educational Advocacy Training Center in Alexandria, Virginia to develop the Parent/School/Community Resource Project in 1983. The purpose was for the State Education Agencies in Virginia and West Virginia to initiate a model program to train parents and educators in the skills needed by both parties to create and implement effective working relationships, thus ensuring quality education for handicapped children. The need for such a service model was identified within each state by statewide surveys of parents of handicapped children regarding their needs for information and training. The services are delivered at a Parent Resource Center by a team, a parent of a handicapped child and a special educator. All centers provide the first three services listed below and additional types of services are determined by community needs.

- basic training for parents and professionals in cooperative planning and educaitonal advocacy.
- initial contact for parents entering the community to provide information regarding services.
- consultation with parents to provide information and direction related to educational issues and community services.

- training for parents in regard to future planning (i.e., career education independent living).
- additional training and resources for parents on topics identified by parents (i.e., handicapping conditions, behavior management).
- training modules for teachers for building positive parent/school relationships.
- coordinaiton and assistance to parent support groups.

The emphasis through all phases of this project is upon building working relationships among parents, school and community. The outcomes of the project are: positive active parental involvement in the educational process will increase; adversial relationships will diminish; prompt and appropriate assistance for parents in need will be available through the services provided by the center; coordination of services will be improved, resulting in cost efficiency; and a parent/educator team will be prepared to continue serving the community and to train others.

Outline of the Presentation

1. Project Director introduces the presentation and presenters.
2. State Director of Special Education presents an overview of the project, includes a slide presentation.
3. Two local directors of special education describe their counties, the impact of the Parent Resouce Centers, the improvements in services, and coordination among agencies.
4. The parent and educator team from Grant County describe their Center, demonstrate a segment of a parent training course and give examples of assistance to individual parents in remote areas of their county.
5. State Coordinator and Project Director discuss the state-wide implementation of such a model from the following aspects: personnel training and technical assistance; coordination between state and local agencies; networking among centers; and financial considerations.

Participant Outcomes

As a result of this workshop, participants will:

- become familiar with the major components of the Parent/School/Community Resource Project.
- participate in the demonstration teaching session of a parent training course.
- identify components of this model program that could be beneficial for parents and teachers in their rural communities.

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Title: "Job Satisfaction in Rural Schools: An Imperative for the Coming Teacher Shortage"

Proposal Abstract

Purpose: The five presenters will describe research conducted regarding job satisfaction among teachers in rural schools, the need for such information in the light of projected teacher shortages in the 1990's, and ways in which this information can be applied by school organizations and administrators to attract and retain teachers.

Objectives: To outline the factors that support and inhibit job satisfaction among teachers in rural schools.

To suggest specific approaches for attracting and retaining teachers in light of competition presented by corporate environments.

To recognize the importance of acknowledging teachers as professionals who bring diverse knowledge, skills and talents to the school organization.

Focus and practical implications: With a critical teacher shortage projected for the 1990's, as outlined in the Carnegie Report, the importance of attracting new teachers and retaining present ones cannot be ignored.

Because the free market system is likely to determine the matter, it is imperative that the education profession consider the question of teacher job satisfaction, particularly in light of corporate competition. Why do men and women enter the profession? Why do they stay in the classroom? Why do they leave? The answers are not interchangeable or converse.

Members of the Department of Education at Eastern Washington University believe the answers should come from applied educational research rather than political prescription. Using information derived from their research into job satisfaction in rural schools and into teacher professionalism, they will recommend solutions for dealing with the crisis. The presentation will be of help and interest to district administrators, principals and teachers, and will assist them in developing the procedures necessary to promote career satisfaction for the rural educator.

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ABSTRACT

A Statewide/Regional Model for Services for Students with Autism

In the area of special education, the low incidence handicap of autism presents unique direct service and teacher training problems. Vast distances and limited resources exaggerate these problems if a child with autism resides in a rural area. The State of Oregon, Department of Education, has developed a unique program for students with autism which successfully capitalizes on the collaborative relationships between regional autism specialists in six geographic areas (many of them very rural areas) and existing educational and community support systems around the state.

There have been many damaging myths about the etiology of autism and the treatment and education of children with autism. A major goal of this program has been to provide accurate and current information and training to parents and educators of children with autism. Training activities have been aimed at awareness, knowledge and application levels. To date, the training has included over 2,000 participants.

In this session the presenters will focus upon the following points in this unique, rural model:

1. Inservice training issues related to learning characteristics, assessment, and program development and teaching techniques for students with autism.
2. Successful facilitation of least restrictive environments for the students with autism through collaborative, supportive relationships.

The presenters themselves exemplify a unique collaboration, having worked together for several years on a project to link autism and learning disabilities in order to foster a more positive teaching trainer perspective. The lead presenter is an autism specialist from the Oregon model; her copresenter, a learning disability specialist from Alaska.

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SOUTH WINNESHIEK COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT: A PACE SETTER IN RURAL EDUCATION THROUGH CREATIVE COLLABORATION

INTRODUCTION

The South Winneshiek Community School District with district offices located in Calmar, Iowa became a reorganized school district in 1954 with the merger of 175 square miles of primarily rural agricultural land including the towns and villages of Calmar, Ossian, Festina and Spillville. The school district with a population of about 5200 people is located in the southern one-third of Winneshiek County in northeast Iowa.

The school district exemplifies "creative collaboration", the theme chosen for this year's National Rural and Small Schools Consortium. This small rural school district of about 660 students grades K-12 was recently recognized as "one of Iowa's and the nation's best". The elementary/middle school was selected as one of the eight outstanding elementary schools in Iowa by the First In The Nation In Education Organization (F.I.N.E.). South Winneshiek was the only rural school with all others being from three of Iowa's largest cities. South Winneshiek High School was one of two Iowa high schools selected as outstanding this year by the U.S. Department of Education's Outstanding School Recognition Program.

The mission of the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School establishes a tone for the collaborative effort that has taken place in two settings that will be addressed at this conference: the utilization of the state AEA (area education agency) in the development of an Effective Schools Project, and the incorporation of a shared-time program with non-public schools within school district boundaries. The mission of the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School is "to guide students in building a foundation of skills and attitudes which will allow them to interpret and enhance their life experiences". Reaching the goal of the school's mission statement has been a symphony of collaboration between several key factors.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS PROJECT

In cooperation with Keystone Area Education Agency (this area's educational service agency), the school has been able to plan, implement and evaluate an extensive three-year Effective Schools Project tailored for the rural setting. The Keystone Area Education Agency and the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School collaborated on a cohesive model to support the local school in providing an optimum education for each student. The Effective Schools Project was based on research, existing programs, and experience; but was tailored to function flexibly to meet the unique needs of the rural school setting.

The Effective Schools Project (ESP) was built on the premise that quality schools possess:

- o administrative effectiveness
- o quality instruction
- o positive school climate
- o system of monitoring

The schools involved in the Effective Schools Project agreed to participate in four modules:

- o administrative leaderahip
- o beginning the school year
- o collegiality and support groups
- o time management for effective learning

In addition, there were several optional modules which lent support to the required modules and were intended to insure and expand the effective school.

Preceeding this collaborative venture was a commitment by the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School to a three-year inservice plan and a commitment by the AEA to follow through on the delivery of the inservice program. The Effective School Project initially began with a review of the concept and a commitment by the school's administration as to the role of the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School in the project. Later, teachers were involved in the decision to determine the extent of the district's future involvement. The decision to become involved meant the local administrative team would begin the ESP. The goal of the project was to have the building principal take an active role in planning, implementing, and evaluating the components of the Effective Schools Project. Following the first required module, "Administrative Leaderahip", the principal would be able to: understand effective schools research, plan for effective change in the school, and become a facilitator of improved instruction, shared decision-making, and management of change.

The Effective School Project continued with the drafting of a school mission statement. The process did not proceed without internal struggle. Along with the development of a mission statement, the school staff chose three school-wide rules that would be emphasized during the following school year. The final phase of the initial year's ESP was the implementation of the first required module, "Beginning the School Year". The module was based on research that indicated that the way a teacher begins the school year is crucial to student success. Following the completion of the module the teacher would: ensure that students know the rules and procedures of their classroom, motivate students by indicating that their school experiences will be pleasant and that they will be treated fairly, and increase students' expectations by helping them recognize they can experience school success.

The second year of the Effective School Project began with the implementation of the third required module, "Collegiality and Support Groups". The formulation of this module was based on the research that effective schools have a climate of mutual respect and support among all school personnel: teacher to teacher, administrator to teacher, teacher to administrator, and the entire staff to the student body. Components of the module included awareness of the individual's stylistic profile and the formulation of "support groups" within the school. Teachers would be able to: develop effective lines of communication between administrators and other members of the faculty, create a climate among faculty members in which they can aid each other in becoming more effective teachers, and develop techniques for creating a nurturing atmosphere for their students following the completion of the module.

The fourth and final required module, "Time Management for Effective Learning", was also completed during the second year of the Effective Schools Project. The research supporting the module was that the effective use of time is one characteristic associated with student achievement. The module was composed of a review of the "engaged time" of the student, non-academic classroom time, non-academic building time, and plans for assessing "time" at the building level. Following this portion of the ESP, the teacher was able to: assess uses of "current" school time, create strategies for increasing scheduled learning time, and develop a plan for school-wide increased efficiency.

During the current school year, teachers will complete the final phase of the Effective Schools Project. Teachers have chosen optional modules based on their individually perceived needs in the original elements of the project; quality instruction, school climate, and monitoring.

Through the utilization of the AEA, the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School is continuing its commitment to an effective inservice program. The program would not be possible in most rural schools without the collaboration between the school and some other agency such as an education service agency.

SHARED-TIME PROGRAMS

The second component of the collaborative effort at the elementary/middle school level of the South Winneshiek Community Schools is the incorporation of a shared-time program with non-public schools within school district boundaries. A unique aspect of school attendance since the formation of the school district is that all students attend public school kindergarten, and then the majority attend grades 1 - 8 at one of the four non-public catholic elementary schools. It has varied anywhere from

65 - 80% in a given year. They all attend the same public high school so return again in grade 9.

The original thrust of the shared-time program for the South Winneshiek Community Schools began as a shared program in athletics and instrumental music several years ago. It has become a more extensive program during the past eight years, and has become a partnership that has brought about a new spirit of cooperation and trust between the two school systems. The program is facilitated by and coordinated through South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School located in the town of Ossian for the children of St. Francis DeSales School, and is held at South Winneshiek High School for the children of the CFS School System in Calmar. At the present time the public school system provides instruction in the following areas: physical education, art, instrumental music and general music. It would provide instruction in computer science too if time, space and equipment would allow it. Students from the non-public schools walk to the public school site to "share" the teachers of a particular subject area. Schedules are mutually developed which balance the dignity of both school systems and their own individual mission statements.

All programs follow the written curriculum of the South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School. Some classes meet every day for a semester and some every other day for the entire year. Physical education in addition to assuring that more students are receiving a quality instructional program, creates a fine public relations program for both schools in maintaining the physical as well as the mental health of their students.

The shared-time art program is offered to students daily for a half year at one school and all year on an every other day basis at the other school. The district's art program, which is truly an outstanding one K-12, provides a much needed exploratory program that would be absent for students of the non-public without the collaborative nature of the shared-time program.

Individual instrumental music lessons and the experience of playing in a large group band are the key components of the shared-time program in instrumental music. Students from the non-public school are blended into the lesson schedule throughout the day. The schedule is again determined by school administrators of the two systems working together to cause the least amount of disruption for students in both schools.

Only one of the non-public schools participates in the general music program. This program consists of the typical curriculum such as music history, and an introduction to music performance, both instrumental and voice.

The formal shared-time academic program has opened the door for after school activity programming between the two systems. Students from both non-public systems participate in all middle school athletic programs. The South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School provides the certified coaches, supplies and equipment, and the non-public school provides facilities in the case of basketball. A collaborative "spirit" makes the sharing of personnel, facilities, schedules and materials possible.

The shared-time experiment in the South Winneshiek Community School District has truly been a positive experience in cooperation and collaboration. It has allowed the public school to coordinate curriculum and program planning much more efficiently and effectively. Shared-time has enabled non-public students to share in the same curriculum programs as their future high school classmates. The program has allowed the public school to save programs and keep teachers on a fulltime basis because of an improved economy of scale. The addition of shared-time students has provided the South Winneshiek School District with additional fulltime equivalency students which has enabled the district to increase its financial resources.

CONCLUSION

As the only rural school to receive one of Iowa's F.I.N.E. Awards, and one of two rural schools in Iowa to receive the U.S. Department of Education's Outstanding Secondary School Awards in 1987, South Winneshiek Elementary/Middle School and South Winneshiek High School are truly "setting the pace" in rural education. That achievement is possible when a school establishes a record of educational progress in sustaining its best features, while it creatively solves its own problems.

We have long recognized the concept that the public school system belongs to the people. Education is really in the spotlight more than ever as evidenced by citizens' probing questions and sometimes demanding tones. They are concerned about taxation and yet they want the best for their children. They are alarmed by social issues and exasperated with bureaucracy. The South Winneshiek Community School District has united with the general community which includes the non-public community to improve its image, and to solicit its collaboration in performing a better service.

The Effective Schools Project and the experiment with shared-time instruction and programs have been two prime examples of creative collaboration. It is providing the finest in staff development, and it is making much more effective and efficient use of resources in providing quality education for all young people of this school community. It is setting the pace in rural and small school education.

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National Rural and Small Schools Consortium
October 13-17, 1987
A "Successful" Model for Rural Special Education

When I was told that I would have the 4:00 Friday time slot for my presentation, I was initially very disappointed because that, by most anybody's standards, is not prime time. After I thought about it however, I decided there was an advantage to this schedule, because the people here are here because they really want to be and are ready to learn. I commend you for your professionalism and your perseverance.

Just to make sure that your professionalism and your perseverance don't wane during this late hour, I plan to use lots of visual aids. There will be overheads and a videotape, of course, but I am a former Elementary teacher and I know firsthand the power of the unknown and keeping students guessing, so I brought along several items to illustrate the points I plan to make.

I will tell you right away that this presentation is intended to show you a Special Education program from Nebraska that works; this will not be a theory session, this will be a nuts and bolts session given in a problem/solution format. That, in fact, is how this program began--there was a problem and a few far-sighted people sought solutions. The organization I'll describe is not all that revolutionary, but it does illustrate creative collaboration in rural Nebraska. This would not be very pertinent information for large or urban districts because the problems that necessitated this organization would not be present in schools with larger populations and access to a multitude of programs to serve all types of handicapping conditions.

Problem: How to serve handicapped students in rural Nebraska where towns are historically independent, and fearful of consolidation and determined to maintain their identity, yet provide quality programs.

Solution: Use a compass, a map, and a telephone--The compass and map to draw a radius for a reasonable driving distance (25 to 30 miles) and the telephone to call the people in those schools. The solution sounds simple, but this is often the most difficult step to take. A number of issues will have to be addressed that aren't necessarily easy or comfortable to discuss: The midwest pioneer spirit that says we can go it alone, community pride and individualism that often prevents cooperation between small towns, the protectionist instinct that wants to prevent small schools from being swallowed up by larger ones.

My purpose today is to show you a program that got past all those reasons for hesitation and reluctance and is working.

Problem: How to organize a number of rual districts so that each maintains its identity and autonomy while coordinating and consolidating Special Education programs.

Solution: Establish a separate organization with a separate governance, separate administration, separate policies and separate mission.

There are advantages and disadvantages, of course, to creating a new organization. The advantages in this case were that, with a separate entity, no one district would lose its identity; membership is okay--ownership, or rather being owned by someone, is not.

It is imperative that, in the formative stages, each participating district take an active voice in building the organization. The ideal is to have each school board participate in defining their expectations in programming.

The GSSC policies include components that address the purpose, governance, membership, programs, and personnel. Governance is the aspect of the organization that must be very well-designed prior to establishing any programs. Nebraska law mandates educational organizations be governed by an elected body, so there are two means to that end: holding a separate election, with representatives from each participating district being elected, or for one district and its board serve as the sponsor.

For a number of reasons--expediency, expense, and to make the chain of command more direct--a sponsoring district was chosen. Hence the name: Geneva Support Services Cooperative. The intermediate governing body is the Board of Advisors, made up of the member districts' Superintendents. (overhead and handouts of governance chart and GSSC policies)

Problem: How to administrate and manage this new separate organization that is jointly owned by all participating districts.

Solution: Hire a person who is willing to wear many, many hats, whose not afraid of driving and who can work with a wide variety of administrators, school boards, teachers, non-certificated staff.

There are two qualities that are essential for the person who will head this organization and those are being willing to be itinerate and being willing to work in a constantly evolving organization. I did bring along copies of my job description and will distribute them with the understanding that that is how it reads at this moment. It, just like the organization, is continually evolving, so I would hesitate to say that this is something that you could take back to your districts and hand to a newly hired person as a road map to follow in beginning this administrative position. However, it is a place to start. However, in this administrative position, the issue of local district autonomy vs. ownership by someone else becomes relevant. The job description that works for our organization differentiates supervision of program from supervision of personnel. Building level administrators wanted to maintain their supervisory capacity over their own employees, and the newly created organization respected that. Consequently, local research teachers serving mildly handicapped students are hired, evaluated and, as the case may be, dismissed by their local administrators. Supervision of program is a broader issue and comes under the job description of the Coop Administrator, because as you know, Special Education is fraught with specialties and legalities--specialties meaning the very unique characteristics of the wide variety of handicapping conditions and the wide variety of ways to intervene with those handicapping conditions. Legalities, meaning all the requirements brought about by the Mandate of 94-142 to protect student, parent, teacher rights, and to define their responsibilities. As administrators in small districts you, too, must wear many, many hats and the purpose of establishing a separate organization was to share one of those hats with a person designed to be an "expert". You notice, I said share the hat, not give away the hat. It is imperative that Building Level Administrators continue to play an active role in these special education programs in their own districts.

Since GSSC has been formed, the Special Education programs, the Resource rooms for mildly handicapped students have become more consistent in the services that they provide. Typically, small rural school districts each have their own distinct personality and method of operation. I would challenge anyone to try and alter that a great deal and would question whether or not that would be a positive step on the whole. However, in Special Education with the legalities mentioned, it is necessary for policies, procedures, and classroom interventions to be more consistent and that is what has happened since the formation of the GSSC. Resource teachers from the five districts get together on a regular basis to discuss the pertinent issues and I can say, without hesitation, that they all have grown from that and their programs have been enhanced.

Now I have explained to you why and how this type of structure was built, how it is being administrated, and what has been the effects at the local district level.

Now I would like to tell you about the programs that have grown out of this cooperative arrangement that are really exciting. They are programs that would not be in existence except for the cooperation between these school districts.

Problem: Students with severe handicaps whose needs require a more specialized program than can be provided in Resource Rooms for the mildly handicapped. (square peg in round hole)

Solution: Establish regional programs that draw students to a central site. (magnet) The schools belonging to the GSSC range in size from 100 students to 500. (Geneva - 566, McCool - 200)

All the five schools had severely handicapped students, but none had programs locally. The students were transported to larger districts which resulted in exorbitant tuition and transportation costs. No one school was able or willing to take on the responsibility of starting programs for more severely handicapped students, but the establishment of a new organization allowed the establishment of new programs as well.

Problem: What to name the new programs that would avoid the alphabet soup syndrome that is prevelant in special education (i.e. I.E.P., MDT, EMH, SLD, SED, etc., etc.).

Solution: Devise acronyms that mean what the program is intended to do. For instance, in this case, our intention for the students is for them to be successful; hence, the name SUCCESS which is an acronym for Special Use of Curriculum and Classrooms for Exceptional Student Services. The three levels of the SUCCESS programs, SUCCESS 1, Preschool; SUCCESS 2, Elementary; and SUCCESS 3, Secondary are serving students in a three county area from birth to age 21.

The funding for each of the SUCCESS programs is paid for by the District of residence on an actual cost basis for members of the GSSC. For non-members of the cooperative, an additional 15% is charged for administrative expense. To date, the establishment of the SUCCESS program has saved many thousands of dollars for the districts involved in tuition and transportation costs. More importantly, I think, is the fact that the curriculum within the SUCCESS program is coordinated consistent and comprehensive.

The videotape will give you a clearer picture of what is involved in each of the SUCCESS programs. The tape lasts thirteen minutes and I will be glad to answer any questions you may have after you see it.

Show video tape.

In closing, I want to stress that the evolution of the Geneva Support Services Cooperative has not been always smooth and without controversy. There are, of course, people who are resistant to change and who would rather maintain the status quo. However, I am convinced that the struggles we have had have been worthwhile because the end result has been beneficial to the students. It is clear to me that creative collaboration does work and, in fact, if we in the rural areas are to survive and to continue to provide quality education, it is essential.

Thank you for your attention and, once again, I appreciate your professionalism and your perseverance.

Handouts: Governance flow chart, GSSC policies, Administrator's job description, SUCCESS Curriculum outline.

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"HANDS-ON" SCIENCE PROGRAM FOR RURAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

The plight of the effective teaching of science in the elementary schools of the nation has been with us for an appalling number of years. This irrefutable fact results in an interesting but repugnant dichotomy. Dichotomous because of the national concern that the United States appears to be slipping into second, perhaps third, place in the race for international superiority in the world wide science marathon and, on the other hand, obsessed with the sentiment that America must return to the "3 R's". This inclination is especially bothersome when one realizes that science is not one of the "3 R's", i.e. it is not classified as one of the basics when the expression, "back to basics" is used.

BRIEF HISTORICAL SKETCH OF ELEMENTARY SCIENCE EDUCATION IN THE U.S.

When one thinks about the status of elementary science education in the United States at this juncture, he/she must wonder how many, perhaps most, of the programs in the public schools can be so primitive. Even if one recalls that science is a recent addition to the elementary curriculum, there is little consolation in the thought. After all Herbert Spencer and Thomas Huxley were pleading for the teaching of science in the middle of the 19th century. Why, then, in the late 1980's do we find so many curricula, especially in rural schools, that are devoid of elementary science and others that relegate it to another area to be read about but not experienced?

The dilemma aforementioned, to one degree or another, is applicable to science education in general. However, since its introduction into the curriculum, progress at the secondary level has advanced more rapidly as compared to the elementary level.

Some of the deterrents to progress in elementary science are as follows:

1. There has been very little research compared to the secondary level.
2. When respectable readability formulas are applied to elementary textbooks, it becomes blatantly obvious that they are, typically too difficult for children in the elementary

schools to read with an acceptable level of comprehension. This dilemma is pronounced from the fourth grade through the sixth grade.

3. The textbooks representative of the ones used by elementary aged children were produced to be read as opposed to being designed to promote an active involvement on the part of the children, i.e. they do not encourage a "hands-on" approach to the teaching of science.

4. In the instance of school systems that developed core curricula, elementary science did not receive the same amount of attention that was directed toward subject matter which was considered to be more rudimentary. On occasion, no provision was made for science at all.

5. Even though there is ample research to support the contention that children are able to comprehend certain concepts at a comparatively young age, elementary science programs have not emphasized concept formation.

6. Professional educators have known for some time that it is vitally important to capitalize upon the child's formative years in order to develop in the young child a positive attitude and a genuine interest in science. For all intent and purpose, this has not been done often in elementary science.

7. The most respected theories of learning have long since built a convincing argument that it is counterproductive to approach the teaching of young children by using topics that are remote and abstract to them. Yet, year after year, elementary science programs fail to utilize the natural and immediate environment that surrounds children.

8. Inadequate measurement techniques have resulted in a gross misconception of the accomplishments of elementary science programs. For example, measurement instruments have highlighted the importance of the regurgitation of large volumes of encyclopedic information reflective of low level cognitive information, instead of a high level comprehension of science concepts.

9. For an extended period, literature in the field of Education has espoused the extreme importance of developing instructional plans that would allow children to learn problem solving processes that would serve them well through the course of their formal education and on into their adult lives. Unfortunately, there has been sparse commitment to the use of science as a vehicle for teaching the importance of joint efforts in problem solving so characteristic of contemporary society.

10. Irrespective of its validity, elementary teachers generally

perceive themselves to be ill prepared to construct learning experiences in elementary science that children can understand. Thus, they are dubious about trying and thereby inadvertently convey the false impression that science is formidable, boring and unimportant.

11. Elementary science has not enjoyed the advantage of being viewed as one of the "3-R's" and; therefore, receives inadequate attention. This status that it affords is a particular disadvantage when the country is convinced that a return to the "3-R's" will eradicate all educational woes.

12. It is not true that elementary science has been devoid of research, but the research has been uneven. For example, there was a flurry of attention immediately subsequent to the launching of Sputnik in 1957, however, that attention was comparatively short lived. (Harris, 1690; Travers, 1973; Wittrock, 1986)

POST SPUTNIK ERA

The aforementioned factors which plagued the progress of elementary science education in the years prior to the launching of the Soviet Sputnik continue, to one degree or another, to curtail development today. This is especially exasperating when one recalls the massive funding of federal projects characteristic of the 1960's.

One of the authors of this paper, George Drew, remembers that he was teaching in the Laboratory School at Colorado State College when Sputnik was propelled into the cosmos in 1957. Within hours the amount of time allotted to science teaching was doubled. It seems pertinent to mention that this particular elementary school was an integral part of a state college which had a long, rich history in teacher education which, probably, explains why there was a well prepared elementary science teacher on the faculty and the inclination on the part of the administration to effect the significant increase in the time allotment for the teaching of science. It seems blatantly obvious that most elementary schools in the country, at that time, did not make comparable adjustments in their curriculum. No doubt this adjustment was not made because the typical elementary school did not have the necessary expertise on its faculty nor the insight to ascertain the dilemma.

Even though Drew had a definite interest and adequate preparation in science, he was not the science teacher. Rather, he was a supervising teacher in the sixth grade. Ironically, he was somewhat dismayed when the administration of the Laboratory School doubled the time allotments for elementary science. His concern was that valuable time was being subtracted from what he considered to be the rudiments of elementary education, i.e. reading, mathematics and language. It was his conviction that the most expeditious means of playing "catch-up" with the Russians was to intensify U.S. efforts to improve instruction designed to develop the fundamentals of elementary education which were the precursors for all well educated persons, including scientists and mathematicians.

It seems abundantly clear at this juncture that both of these approaches are ineffectual if used in isolation, i.e. if there is a genuine commitment to nurturing children who are the potential U.S. scientists and mathematicians for the 21st century, science educators must be ingenious enough to devise elementary science instructional programs that combine the fundamentals aforementioned, science-math subject matter and methodology based upon accepted principles of human development and learning. Even though massive federal dollars were directed into science education following the Soviet's spectacular venture into outer space, this combination has not become a "fait accompli". The most exemplar programs, like AAAS, that emanated from the 60's did emphasize inquiry which had the affect of originating the "hands-on" approach which is reflective of John Dewey's philosophy and accepted principles of human learning. This phenomenon did, in fact, have a positive impact upon elementary science education.

Both authors were involved in science education during the 1960's. Drew recalls teaching elementary science at the Experimental School at the University of Iowa from approximately 1958 until 1962. One of the major goals of the College of Education was to convince elementary classroom teachers that a "hands-on" approach based upon the inquiry technique could be used in conventional Iowa classrooms. This was, to say the least, a formidable undertaking because then, as now, the typical elementary teacher perceived himself/herself to be insufficiently prepared to teach elementary science and was reluctant to embark upon the "vast unknown". The prevailing attitude on the part of the teachers was that science had to be taught by science majors who wore white lab coats and taught in well equipped laboratories which contained beakers and petri dishes. Herculean energy was expended to change their misconception. These efforts took the form of demonstration lessons designed to convert teachers to the view that elementary science could be taught in very traditional classrooms - their classrooms. For example, demonstration lessons were conducted for elementary classroom teachers in order to show them how cattle eyes, readily available in the beef producing state of Iowa, could be utilized to provide fourth grade children with a "hands-on" approach to a unit on sensory organs. Desks, of a 1930 vintage, in ultra conservative classrooms were covered with newspaper to provide a cheap and accessible dissecting board. Single edged razor blades were used as a substitute for expensive scalpels. The teachers observed that the children were not squeamish but were delighted to learn that a real eye is infinitely more intriguing than the pictures and models which they had studied. In addition, they were fascinated to discover that the natural lense magnifies the same way a magnifying glass does.

In spite of these Herculean efforts, little impact was made upon the manner in which science was taught in the Iowa elementary schools. In retrospect, it seems so crystal clear that individual teachers were being expected to be the real Hercules, i.e. to engineer a successful revolution without a support system. Revolutions usually do not materialize unless they have a great deal of support, especially at the top echelon.

The authors were rather deeply involved in federally financed summer institutes during the late 60's and mid 70's. Projects that manifested themselves in this time span often provided funds to bring elementary classroom teachers to university campuses to participate in NSF endeavors to inform them about innovative programs like AAAS, SAPA, ESS and SCIS. The standard operation procedure was to pay the expenses of "key" teachers who were selected to spend six to eight weeks on campuses whose NSF proposals had been approved. They took part in accelerated institutes whose mission was to teach them "hands-on", inquiry oriented approaches to the teaching of elementary science. Much energy was directed showing them how they could become "change agents" when they returned to their respective home school districts. The intent was to have them change ineffectual science curricula by using the exemplar programs which they had studied during the course of the summer. The science educators with whom they worked on the campuses visited the teachers in their schools throughout the ensuing academic year. The purpose of those visits was to assist the classroom teachers in their attempts to implement the new approaches to elementary science instruction. The prevailing attitude was that science in the elementary school was going to experience a monumental metamorphosis. Unfortunately, comparatively little permanent change was forthcoming.

In March of 1984, the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO) issued a report that was a shock to most, if not all, of the persons who were an integral part of the summer institutes mentioned above. Three of the most devastating conclusion of this lengthy report were as follows:

1. Nationally, comparatively few secondary teachers and fewer elementary teachers attended the NSF institutes mentioned above.

2. The mere addition of science subject matter to the curricula did not improve the quality of the instructional programs.

3. The NSF model which brought "key" teachers to university campuses to participate in the summer institutes and, subsequently, returned then to their home schools to become "change agents" was unsuccessful. (GAO Report, 1984)

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE AT MARTIN'S CENTER OF EXCELLENCE FOR THE ENRICHMENT OF SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS EDUCATION

When the Tennessee legislature passed Governor Lamar Alexander's Better Schools Program into law, the authors saw it as an opportunity to address the "sins of the past", i.e. the criticisms that had been directed toward science education in the past. The Better Schools Program created the concept of Centers of Excellence which were to be placed on those state university campuses that submitted competitive proposals which were approved by the Tennessee Higher Education Commission. The authors wrote and submitted a proposal whose purpose was to establish The University of Tennessee at Martin as a Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of Science and Mathematics Education. The principal author was Dr. Maurice Field, Associate Dean of the School of Education at UTM.

Some of the salient objectives of the Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of Science and Mathematics Education (CEESME) were as follows:

1. To develop an instructional strategy for combining appropriate science subject matter with accepted theories of learning.

2. To utilize the Tennessee Instructional Model (TIM) as the methodology to be used in connection with the Center because it was sound and because it was the one which had been embraced by the Tennessee State Department of Education (SDOE).

3. To create Science Activity Manuals (SAM) based upon the inquiry approach and designed to insure that science guides, which the Tennessee State Department of Education had published for the first time, would not lie dormant on the shelves of Tennessee classrooms.

At the time of the inception of the CEESME, elementary science education was in disarray in Tennessee. Approximately ten different textbooks were in use in the 141 school systems even though all of the school systems were measured by the Stanford Achievement Tests. The CEESME, in cooperation with the Tennessee Department of Education, embarked upon a project intended to provide leadership in the elementary science education arena. The Tennessee Board of Education had recently approved the Science Framework K-6. The goals and terminal objectives, too numerous to mention here, along with the areas and strands had been selected by a committee of elementary teachers and professional science educators from across Tennessee. The areas and strands can be found in Table I, while goals and terminal objectives can be requested from the CEESME. The skills selected fell into three categories, which were: process skills, reading/study skills, and interpersonal relations and attitudes. These can be seen in their entirety on Table II.

A second committee of similar composition to the first committee was established for the purpose of adding instructional objectives, content synopses, skills, and activities for each of the terminal objectives. The resulting document was the Tennessee Science Curriculum Guides K-6. One of the major confrontations which arose during this process was the realization that no textbook under adoption in Tennessee matched the guide for a particular grade level more than 50 percent. Those textbook portions which did correlate to the guide were often not of the "hands-on" approach. Certainly one of the major aims, other than state-wide consistency, was to install the "hands-on" concept for teaching elementary science in Tennessee.

The prevailing view was that those school systems which followed the guide would cover the pertinent areas of science at an appropriate cognition level during the seven year period provided the content and the skills were appropriately meshed. Without the textbooks that would support this effort, teachers became very skeptical and somewhat dubious of the entire effort.

The CEESME assumed the responsibility of preparing a vehicle designed to assist teachers in their efforts to translate the Science Curriculum Guides K-6 into appropriate learning experiences for classrooms. Twenty-five elementary teachers from self-contained classrooms were selected to write the materials that would enable this transition to take place. Initially, they studied the Tennessee Science Curriculum Guide to determine if there were gaps in the instructional sequence and if the terminal objectives had been placed at the appropriate grade levels. The twenty-five teachers worked for twenty-two weeks during which time they met as a group for three hours each week. Subsequently, the twenty-five writers began to construct science lessons for each of the objectives aforementioned.

The structure for each lesson was taken from the Tennessee Instructional Model. Thus, each lesson began with a set, continued with instruction with active participation interspersed, and concluded with a closure. Often enrichment exercises were also included. As a means of providing support for the teacher a materials list was provided along with resources, both paper and human, which could be used to supplement the lesson. One of the unique features of the lessons was that each lesson was written in such a way that the uneasy teacher could read the lesson to his/her students, since the authors included answers to questions and gave directions for activities. The teacher knew that the author's comments were included in parentheses. These comments were answers to questions the teacher had just asked or instructions for setting up the next activity. The resulting lessons, some 225 in number, are collectively called the Science Activities Manual K-6 and are often referred to as SAM. For ease in their use they are packaged by the grade level the with intention that they will be placed in a loose-leaf notebook so that changes or additions are easily made. During each workshop involving SAM, teachers are urged to inform the CEESME of changes which should b made in a particular lesson or to supply the CEESME with lessons they have written.

These materials became a natural on which to build a dissemination program. They were correlated with the Tennessee policy on elementary science education with reference to content and skills, the Tennessee concept regarding the ideal teaching strategy as recognized by the Career Ladder and, most of all, they were considered "teacher friendly" by the teachers who tried them.

During the second year the Tennessee Centers of Excellence were in existence, the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (THEC) developed the concept of Programmatic Extensions. In essence, this afforded an opportunity for those in charge of approved centers to expand the confines of their centers, but still stay within the purview of the original proposal. One of the conditions was that THEC would provide $2.00 for every $1.00 matched by the institution. The authors envisioned this as a vehicle for improving the quality of elementary science in Tennessee's rural elementary schools but had no viable means of providing the matching money required by THEC. Therefore, the authors wrote a NSF proposal fashioned to be in tandem with the THEC proposal. As a consequence, the Programmatic Extension pertaining to elementary science education for rural schools in Tennessee was funded ultimately by THEC and NSF. The Extension commenced on February 7, 1987.

The design of the Programmatic Extension addressed the shortcomings delineated in the March, 1984 GAO Report, et al and based upon the premise that the next generation of U.S. scientists are currently in the elementary schools, many of which are rural in nature. Some of the identifying traits of the Programmatic Extension are as follows:

1. The Tennessee State Department of Education has divided the state into nine Service Centers. The project involves selected rural schools in the Northwest, Southwest and the Mid-Cumberland Service Centers. However, it is anticipated that the activities will expand to other Service Centers across the state.

2. The plan calls for science content to be provided by academicians who represent the disciplines of chemistry, biology, physics and geology. Most important is the fact that these academicians were selected upon the basis of a genuine commitment to the improvement of science instruction at the elementary school level and a sincere willingness to work with elementary personnel who have modest preparation in the sciences.

3. An integral aspect of the undertaking is the creation, on the UTM campus, of an Instructional Strategies Assessment Center (ISAC). The major goal of ISAC is to assess the activities of the Center of Excellence according to those variables the Tennessee State Department of Education has judged to be necessary for Tennessee teachers to progress up the Tennessee Career Ladder.

4. The Programmatic Extension for the improvement of science instruction in Tennessee rural elementary schools is based upon a design that calls for the formation of teams from a given school selected to participate. A team consists of one lower grade teacher, one upper grade teacher, their building principal and their instructional supervisor. The rational for this particular approach to team formation emanates from the conviction that elementary science instruction must start as early as the lower grades. The upper grade teacher is a member of the team because

heretofore instruction at this level has been poor or nonexistent and the fact that there needs to be continuity throughout the K-6 span. The building principal is an invaluable member of the team because, in elementary schools, nothing is accomplished if he/she is not an advocate and because he/she interacts with the central administration. The instructional supervisor is a crucial team member because teaching strategies cannot be changed without the support of this individual and he/she also interacts with the central administration.

5. The highest rank for teachers on the Tennessee Career Ladder is Level III. Three Level III. teachers, one from each of the Service Centers aforementioned, were selected to participate in the project and, ultimately, to serve as Field Supervisors. Their primary responsibility is to assist the teams with the implementation in the home schools.

6. The teams and the Level III. teachers came to the UTM campus on alternate weekends from February 7, 1987, until the end of May. They spent the month of June at UTM and took part in an intense institute (the Elementary Science Education Institute). They will return in August to make plans for the ensuing academic year in the home districts. The three field supervisors and UTM faculty members will assist the teams in their efforts to implement the plans for improvement of instruction in their respective schools. The initial emphasis will be directed toward the home schools of the team members. Subsequently, the focus will switch to other schools in the districts.

Some of the salient differences between the Programmatic Extension for the Improvement of Elementary Science Instruction and those of "yesteryear" are as follows:

1. Unlike the models mentioned above in connection with Colorado State College, the University of Iowa, et al the "key" teachers will not be returned to the "battlegrounds" without a solid support system. The field supervisors and the UTM faculty members will be an integral aspect of the implementation process. In addition, the superintendent of each of the teams has approved the team members for participation in the project and are supportive of it. The Instructional Strategies Assessment Center will be used for constant assessment of the progress. The Tennessee Instructional Model is strongly supported by the Tennessee State Department of Education and is the methodology chosen to blend with up-dated science subject matter which correlates with the Tennessee Department of Education's policy on science education as opposed to merely adding science subject matter to the curricula.

PREVIEW OF COMING ATTRACTIONS

The Center of Excellence for the Enrichment of Science and Mathematics Education is funded for two more cycles comparable to the one described above by the National Science Foundation. It is anticipated that participants will be drawn from other parts of Tennessee and then, eventually, the model will spread across the entire state.

ON DISPLAY

The following materials will be on display at the National Rural and Small School Consortium meeting in Arlington, Virginia:

1. Science Activities Manual K-6
2. Tennessee Science Curriculum Guides K-6
3. Booklets describing the external activities in which the Center has been engaged

TABLE I

CONTENT EMPHASIS K - 6*

AREA	STRAND	GRADE LEVELS GRADE K	GRADE 1	GRADE 2	GRADE 3	GRADE 4	GRADE 5	GRADE 6
PHYSICAL SCIENCE								
	MACHINES AND WORK	A	A		A		A	A
	ELECTRICITY AND MAGNETISM	B	B**	B	B	B	B	B
	SOUND, HEAT AND LIGHT	C	C	C		C	C	C
	MATTER AND ENERGY		D		D	D	D	D
LIFE SCIENCE								
	ANIMALS	E	E	E	E	E	E	
	PLANTS	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
	HUMAN BODY	G	G		G	G	G	G
	GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT	H	H	H				H
	MICROSCOPIC LIFE					I	I	
EARTH AND SPACE SCIENCE								
	ASTRONOMY	J	J	J	J		J**	J
	METEOROLOGY	K		K	K	K		
	GEOLOGY	L**	L	L	L	L	L	L
	OCEANOGRAPHY					M		M
ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE								
	ENERGY AND THE ENVIRONMENT	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
	MAN'S EFFECT ON THE EARTH	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
	ECOSYSTEMS		P	P	P	P	P	P

*Board of Education. Science Curriculum Framework. Nashville, Tennessee: State of Tennessee, 1984.

CEESME Proposed Strand Additions Indicated By **

TABLE II

SCIENCE EDUCATION SKILLS K - 6*

	PROCESS SKILLS	READING/STUDY SKILLS	INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS AND ATTITUDES
K TO 2	Observing Describing Classifying Predicting Measuring Questioning Sequencing Using space/time relationships	Following directions Reading to find answers to questions Interpreting pictures	Listening Cooperating Communicating orally and in writing Appreciating science for enjoyment Appreciating the ideas of others Understanding how our activities affect the environment Appreciating the beauty of nature Developing a sense of responsibility Respecting rules and authority
3 TO 4	Collecting data Recording data Analyzing data Drawing conclusions Labeling diagrams Identifying problems and possible solutions	Identifying the main idea Comparing and contrasting ideas and information Interpreting tables, graphs, and diagrams Constructing tables, graphs, and diagrams Interpreting symbols Reading for details Locating needed information in the library Distinguishing between scientific fact and opinion	Relating scientific information to everyday experiences Understanding that science is subject to change
5 TO 6	Using a taxonomic key Formulating models	Summarizing Writing scientific reports Judging the relevance of information Taking notes	Appreciating the history of science Demonstrating group work skills Understanding the limits of science and technology Developing an understanding for the relationship among science, technology, and society Being open-minded Developing decision-making skills

SKILLS FOR EACH UPPER LEVEL GRADE INCLUDE THE SKILLS INDICATED PLUS THOSE INDICATED FOR PREVIOUS GRADE LEVELS

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*Board of Education. Science Curriculum Framework. Nashville, Tennessee: State of Tennessee, 1984.

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CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1987

10:20 - 11:20 AM

Ron Lemay
Marketing Specialist
Steck-Vaughn Company
P.O. Box 2028
Austin, TX 78768

GED-1988: New for Teachers and Students

In 1988, the American Council on Education's, GED Testing Service will implement a new series of high school equivalency tests across the nation. Significant changes in the tests include the demonstration by testees of their ability to write and their ability to apply higher order thinking skills. In addition, the content of the tests will require teachers to re-think and re-train in order to better meet their student's needs. These changes are the result of studies conducted by the GED Testing Service over the past few years and have been dictated somewhat through improvements brought about by changes in the secondary school curriculum.

In order to provide the meaningful instruction needed by GED students, teachers and administrators must be made aware of strategies and state-of-the-art materials available to them. Provisions must be made for learning and teaching styles to adjust to the skills acquisition for the new tests. Educators will be given the opportunity to prepare themselves for the 1988 GED Tests and to help themselves in understanding methods they may use to insure their student's GED success.

This presentation will compare the current version of the GED Tests to the planned 1988 editions. Using GED Testing Service materials, participants will be made aware of the competencies successful candidates must acquire. Also, we will have the opportunity to review sample test items and how these items test thinking skills in each of the GED Test area of Science, Social Studies, Writing Skills, Interpreting Literature and The Arts, and Mathematics.

GED FACTS

1 OUT OF 7 HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES IS GED.

1 OUT OF 20 COLLEGE ENROLLEES IS A GED GRAD.

KENTUCKY HAD MORE GED THAN HIGH SCHOOL GRADS -- A FIRST IN THE U.S.

JUNIOR COLLEGES PLAN ON DOUBLING THE NUMBER OF THEIR GED GRADS EACH YEAR.

16,000 PRISONERS IN THE FEDERAL PRISON SYSTEM ARE NOT HIGH SCHOOL GRADS.

Writing Skills, Part I

The Writing Skills test of the revised GED Tests is comprised of two parts, one part to test knowledge of the conventions of written English, and the second to test directly the ability to write. The scores earned on both components of the test will be combined and reported on a standard score scale as a single score. The recommendation that the test include a writing sample is a dramatic revision to the current test content. However, the Language Arts panel (and, indeed, the entire test specifications committee) expressed its view on this matter in no uncertain terms: "The English specifications panel believes that no one should receive credit for high school equivalency without being asked to demonstrate writing ability directly as well as indirectly."

Content

Part I of the Writing Skills test will resemble the current GED Writing Skills test in several ways. First, both the current test and a part of the revised test use a multiple choice format which presents items that require error recognition and correction. The revised test will include items in approximately the following proportions:

Sentence Structure: 35%
Usage: 35%
Mechanics (spelling, punctuation,
and capitalization): 30%

In the current Writing Skills test, 30% of the items are Sentence Structure/Diction and Style, 30% are Usage, and 25% are Mechanics. The remaining 15% in the current test consists of items in Logic and Organization, which will be measured directly in the essay component of the revised Test One.

Context

The subject matter for the Writing Skills test, Part I includes those topics with which the examinee is likely to be familiar. Relevant subjects may include topics of practical interest such as consumer affairs, career skills, and computer awareness or subjects of more general interest such as vacations, health, family life, and education.

Format

As adults usually need to write and proofread connected pieces of discourse, Part I directly measures proofreading skills in the more realistic setting of paragraphs. These paragraphs are 10-12 sentences long and, when corrected, are examples of good writing.

Some of the sentences within each paragraph contain errors which students must locate and correct. In some cases the sentences do not contain errors but require revision for the sake of clarity or logic. The errors to be corrected are those most often encountered in student writing, most complained about by the public, and most likely to hamper a person's advancement, acceptance, or ability to communicate effectively to various audiences. The sentence to be corrected is repeated in each item and the alternatives (or answers) are presented in the order in which they occur in the sentence.

In at least half of the items (or questions), the alternatives do not appear by categories . That is, alternatives for each item may often be from any of the five content areas—again in an attempt to create a realistic proofreading situation. (This range of alternatives is found in the *sentence correction* item type described below.)

Item Types

The items in the Writing Skills test, Part I are classified by item type. "Item type" refers to the *method* by which the content areas are tested and by which the examinee is asked to respond. The three item types are used in the following proportions:

(1) Sentence Correction: 50%
(2) Sentence Revision: 35%
(3) Construction Shift: 15%

Examples of each type are provided below.

Item Type 1: Sentence Correction

This item type is used to test skills in all content areas of the Writing Skills Test, Part I. The sentence correction item type repeats one of the sentences from the paragraph and asks what correction should be made. Several examples are given of this type with different content areas and categories.

Item Type 2: Sentence Revision

This item type is used to test skills in the content areas of Sentence Structure, Usage, and Punctuation. The sentence revision format consists of a stem with a part underlined that may or may not contain an error in sentence structure. The alternatives which follow list various possible corrections to the underlined section of the stem. In this item type, the first alternative is always exactly the same as the original sentence.

Item Type 3: Construction Shift

This item type is used to test skills in the content areas of Sentence Structure and Punctuation. The construction shift type consists of a stem which must be rewritten using a different structure. The sentence which results from the revision must have the same meaning as the original sentence and must be correct and clearly stated. While the stems in sentence correction and sentence revision item types usually contain errors, construction shift stems do not. These items aim at testing an examinee's ability to employ alternate structures correctly rather than the ability to correct errors. Implicitly, logic skills are also tested here, as well as an understanding of sequence of events.

Cognitive Levels

All items tested in the Writing Skills test, Part I are at the *application* level and classified by item types, as described above.

The following is a sample paragraph appropriate for Part I of the Writing Skills test by virtue of its subject, length, and reading level. Following the paragraph are sample items illustrating a variety of item types, content areas and categories.

SAMPLE PARAGRAPH

Directions: The following items are based on a paragraph which contains numbered sentences. Some of the sentences may contain errors in sentence structure, usage, or mechanics. A few sentences, however, may be correct as written. Read the paragraph and then answer the items based on it. For each item, choose the answer that would result in the most effective writing of the sentence or sentences. The best answer must be consistent with the meaning and tone of the rest of the paragraph.

(1)Computer programs are sets of specialized instructions. (2)Programs, stored on magnetic disks, are also known as software, the hardware is the computer itself. (3)A program talks to a computer. (4)It tells a computer how to perform certain tasks, such as word processing or accounting. (5)The computer reads the program disk electronically by spinning it. (6)When you type on the keyboard you provide the computer with information and commands. (7)The program manual explains which keys, or combinations of keys, will activate these commands. (8)For instance, in word processing their are commands to delete words and sentences. (9)The program translates what you type into electronic impulses that the computer understands. (10)At the same time, the program translated electronic impulses from the computer into words and numbers on the screen. (11)With this technology, busineses can rely on computers for everything from inventories to accounting. (12)At home, individuals can write letters balance the family budget, and even shop for groceries. (13)The capabilities of computers are changing every day and with them the way we live our lives.

GED Essay Scoring Guide

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Papers will show *some or all* of the following characteristics.

Upper-half papers make clear a definite purpose, pursued with varying degrees of effectiveness. They also have a structure that shows evidence of some deliberate planning. The writer's control of English usage ranges from fairly reliable at 4 to confident and accomplished at 6.

6 Papers scored as a 6 tend to offer sophisticated ideas within an organizational framework that is clear and appropriate for the topic. The supporting statements are particularly effective because of their substance, specificity, or illustrative quality. The writing is vivid and precise, though it may contain an occasional flaw.

5 Papers scored as a 5 are clearly organized with effective support for each of the writer's major points. The writing offers substantive ideas, though the paper may lack the flair or grace of a 6 paper. The surface features are consistently under control, despite an occasional lapse in usage.

4 Papers scored as a 4 show evidence of the writer's organizational plan. Support, though sufficient, tends to be less extensive or convincing than that found in papers scored as a 5 or 6. The writer generally observes the conventions of accepted English usage. Some errors are usually present, but they are not severe enough to interfere significantly with the writer's main purpose.

Lower-half papers either fail to convey a purpose sufficiently or lack one entirely. Consequently, their structure ranges from rudimentary at 3, to random at 2, to absent at 1. Control of the conventions of English usage tends to follow this same gradient.

3 Papers scored as a 3 usually show some evidence of planning or development. However, the organization is often limited to a simple listing or haphazard recitation of ideas about the topic, leaving an impression of insufficiency. The 3 papers often demonstrate repeated weaknesses in accepted English usage and are generally ineffective in accomplishing the writer's purpose.

2 Papers scored as a 2 are characterized by a marked lack of development or inadequate support for ideas. The level of thought apparent in the writing is frequently unsophisticated or superficial, often marked by a listing of unsupported generalizations. Instead of suggesting a clear purpose, these papers often present conflicting purposes. Errors in accepted English usage may seriously interfere with the overall effectiveness of these papers.

1 Papers scored as a 1 leave the impression that the writer has not only *not* accomplished a purpose, but has not made any purpose apparent. The dominant feature of these papers is the lack of control. The writer stumbles both in conveying a clear plan for the paper and in expressing ideas according to the conventions of accepted English usage.

0 The zero score is reserved for papers which are blank, illegible, or written on a topic other than the one assigned.

Social Studies

At the recommendation of the Social Studies Test Specifications Panel, the Social Studies Test will continue to use items that measure integrated, comprehensive skills as well as the important concepts and principles that are the lasting outcomes of a high school social studies education. There are no dramatic changes in the test, but there are three developments of note. One, single items in the new test will often incorporate a combination of economic, political, geographic, and historical principles, a testing approach that more closely resembles realistic decision-making and problem-solving. Two, across the content areas, the test addresses global issues including the interdependence of individuals and nations. Three, the test requires more higher level thinking skills; that is, it poses more questions that require a variety of thinking processes to arrive at the answer.

Content

The content and emphasis of the Social Studies Test remain essentially the same as that of the current tests. The content for social studies includes

A. History (including global issues): 25%
B. Economics: 20%
C. Political Science: 20%
D. Geography: 15%
E. Behavioral Science (Anthropology, Psychology, Sociology): 20%

Following the recommendations of the GED Tests Specifications Committee, the primary emphasis of the test is on the measurement of *integrated, comprehensive skills obtained from an overall study of the social studies* rather than on discrete concepts from various subject areas. A given test item may, therefore, relate to more than one subject area. For example, an item dealing with legislation on conserving national forest land might incorporate concepts from political science, economics, and geography. Further, an item set which explores the work of the United Nations explores history, world affairs, and economic facts and statistics.

To illustrate further the notion of testing integrated skills, it may be helpful to consider the roles in which individuals are portrayed in the test contexts. Individuals may be viewed as acquirers, users, and communicators of information. From the perspective of the social studies, the acquirer, user, and communicator of information functions as an individual and as a member of social groups ranging in size from the family, to the local community, to the nation, and to the global community.

Context

Social Studies items are designed to be relevant to the GED test population, with an emphasis on settings familiar to daily life. Often questions address situations in which the individual is citizen, consumer, or worker. Some items address the impact of technology and computers on everyday living, such as changing the work force or altering the natural environment and standard of living.

Format

All social studies items are multiple choice questions based on either a written stimulus (e.g., editorials, speeches, popular magazine and journal articles, primary sources, etc.) or a graphic stimulus (e.g., graphs, tables, charts, diagrams, cartoons). Two thirds of the questions have prose stimuli; one third have graphic stimuli. Single items consist of up to about 40 words or a graphic stimulus. Item sets consist of up to 250 words or a graphic stimulus accompanied by 6-7 questions. Two thirds of the questions are in items sets; one third are single, or stand-alone items. A *new item type*, illustrated below, calls for higher level cognitive skills. It requires the examinee to categorize ideas, events, and issues according to definitions that are provided.

Cognitive Levels

The 1988 Social Studies Test will test higher level skills that often assume prior knowledge of important social studies principles, concepts, and events and that require use of that knowledge. No items will test only recall of information. The change in skills emphasis demonstrates the new shift to testing higher level skills. The social studies items are classified according to the following cognitive levels, based on an adaptation of Bloom's taxonomy (*Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, Benjamin S. Bloom, ed. et al., 1958).

1. COMPREHENSION (20%) items require understanding the meaning and intent of written and graphic stimulus material. They measure the ability to:
   - restate information
   - summarize ideas
   - identify implications
2. APPLICATION (30%) items require the ability to use information and ideas in a concrete situation. They measure the ability to:
   - use given or remembered ideas in a context other than that provided

3. **ANALYSIS (30%)** items require the ability to break down information and to explore relationships of component ideas. They measure the ability to:

   - distinguish facts from hypotheses or opinions
   - recognize unstated assumptions
   - distinguish a conclusion from supporting statements
   - identify cause and effect relationships

4. **EVALUATION (20%)** items require the ability to make judgments about the validity or accuracy of information or methods based on provided or assumed criteria. They measure the ability to:

   - assess the adequacy or appropriateness of data to substantiate hypotheses, conclusions, or generalizations
   - recognize the role values play in beliefs and decision-making
   - assess the accuracy of facts as determined by documentation or proof
   - indicate logical fallacies in arguments

Science

At the recommendation of the Science Specifications Panel, the GED Science test will continue to have an equal balance of items from both the life sciences and the physical sciences. Items will not be developed to test factual knowledge directly but will require examinees to use information provided in the test items or acquired through life experience. Test items will illustrate that science education is acquired in both formal and non-formal settings. Abstract reasoning and problem solving ability are addressed as very important aspects in the science test.

Content

The content for the GED Science test is as follows:

A. Life Sciences: Biology 50%

B. Physical Sciences: 50%
- Earth Science
- Physics
- Chemistry

Test items relate to major conceptual themes—the "universal" concepts which cut across all disciplines of science. Major conceptual themes include: the constant state of change, conservation of mass and/or energy, interactions within or between natural systems, and the relationship of time and space to natural phenomena.

Context

The items in the new test measure the examinee's understanding of:

- how science relates to one's personal life
- the natural environment
- the potential and limitations of science in explaining natural phenomena
- the relationships between science educational skills and work activities.

Format

The Science test items are based upon written stimulus material or graphic stimulus material (e.g., graphs, tables, charts, diagrams, etc.). Written materials range in length from a question posed as the item stem to an article followed by a question pertaining to the information presented. Articles are written at a reading level that does not interfere with the assessment of the examinee's knowledge of science. Some items are grouped into sets for the sake of sharing common stimulus material (e.g., a set of items based on a written article or a set of items based on a graphic stimulus). Stimulus materials represent realistic situations encountered by large segments of the examinee population.

Cognitive Levels

The GED Science test no longer includes questions requiring only recall of facts. The Science test is designed to assess the examinee's higher level skills. Basic knowledge of scientific principles, concepts, and methods *is essential* not only to demonstrate an understanding of the information but to *use or manipulate* the information or ideas that are provided.

Science items are classified by cognitive level according to the same system as that used in the GED Social Studies test. The classification system is based on an adaptation of Bloom's taxonomy (*Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. Benjamin S. Bloom, Ed. et al., 1958).

1. COMPREHENSION items require understanding the meaning and intent of written and graphic stimulus material. They measure the ability to:
    - restate information
    - summarize ideas
    - identify implications

2. APPLICATION items require the ability to use information and ideas in a concrete situation. They measure the ability to:
    - use given or remembered ideas in a context other than that provided

3. ANALYSIS items require the ability to break down information and to explore relationships of component ideas. They measure the ability to:
    - distinguish facts from hypotheses or opinions
    - recognize unstated assumptions
    - distinguish a conclusion from supporting statements
    - identify cause and effect relationships

4. EVALUATION items require the ability to make judgments about the validity or accuracy of information or methods based on provided or assumed criteria. They measure the ability to:
    - assess the adequacy or appropriateness of data to substantiate hypotheses, conclusions, or generalizations
    - recognize the role values play in beliefs and decision making
    - assess the accuracy of facts as determined by documentation or proof
    - indicate logical fallacies in arguments.

Interpreting Literature and the Arts

By recommendation of the Language Arts Test specifications panel, what is currently the "GED Reading Test" will be called "Interpreting Literature and the Arts." The change in name was suggested for two reasons: 1) all the GED tests require reading skills, not just one, and 2) literature and the arts comprise a significant part of the high school curriculum.

Content

The revised test will no longer include sections on practical and general reading for the above reasons. These activities are also addressed more appropriately in other tests of the GED. Content areas for Interpreting Literature and the Arts now include

A. *Popular Literature:* 50%
B. *Classical Literature:* 25%
C. *Commentary about Literature and the Arts:* 25% .

Popular Literature includes

1. Prose non-fiction
2. Fiction
3. Poetry and lyrics
4. Drama

Sources for this content area include writing of *acknowledged quality*, that is, good models of writing, yet not too difficult for the GED population. Using this principle, then, the works of Rod McKuen or Danielle Steele would not be considered appropriate, while those of the following authors would: Joyce Carol Oates, John Le Carre, Ken Kesey, Mary Gordon, and James Baldwin, to name a few.

Classical Literature includes literature from the same four genres as those included for popular literature and is drawn from literature of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. While the line between popular and classical literature is fuzzy at best, a definition from Holman's *Handbook to Literature* (1972) provides a reasonable guide: Classical literature is that "which by common consent has achieved a recognized position in literary history for its *superior qualities* (also works by an author of similar standing)." Authors considered "classical" for our purposes include Steinbeck, Faulkner, Hemingway, Fitzgerald, Orwell, Thoreau, again, to name but a few.

Commentary includes writing *about*

1. Literature
2. Theater
3. Music/Dance
4. Film
5. Art

The panel's recommendations in this area underscore the principle that the educated person has some knowledge of the arts. Selections in this area are usually reviews, and must avoid both the examinee's need to have prior knowledge of the subject and the difficult vocabulary so common in this genre.

Context

The subject matter of Interpreting Literature and the Arts excerpts must take into account the very diverse GED population. Examinees come from many racial and ethnic backgrounds, as well as occupations, and none of these should be represented in literature that could be construed as stereotypical or demeaning. The selections should of course be "timeless" since the revised GED Tests will be taken into the 1990s. This consideration is particularly important for Commentary materials since the arts reviewed in this content area may frequently be "fads" (e.g., break dancing, New Wave music, graffiti art, etc.).

Format

The reading selections in Interpreting Literature and the Arts are coherent units with a beginning, middle, and end. Prose excerpts range from 200-400 words, while poetry excerpts range from 8 to 25 lines. Each selection is followed by 5-8 items which are classified according to cognitive levels.

Purpose Question: Another new feature of the Literature and the Arts test is the purpose question—a brief, easy-to-read question which appears before each excerpt. Its purpose is to provide a more natural setting for the examinee, that is, to create the "need to know" that occurs whenever an adult picks up reading material (a newspaper, an instructions manual, a best seller, etc.)

Cognitive Levels

1. **COMPREHENSION** items (60%) require an understanding of the meaning and intent of the writing.
   - A. *Literal comprehension* items refer to ideas that are explicit in a specific part (literal/specific) or throughout the text (literal/global).
   - B. *Inferential comprehension* items refer to ideas that are implied in a specific part (inferential/specific) or throughout the text (inferential/global).
2. **APPLICATION** items (15%) require the ability to use information and ideas from a text in a situation *different* from that described in the text.
3. **ANALYSIS** items (25%) require the ability to examine the elements of style and structure in an excerpt (e.g., tone, diction, organization, sentence structure, use of detail, metaphors, etc.) or to determine how these elements relate to the excerpt's effect.

Mathematics

At the recommendation of the Mathematics Panel of the GED Specifications Committee, the major areas to be tested in the GED Mathematics test will continue to be arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. The Mathematics Panel, recommended the following specific guidelines for the GED Mathematics test:

(1) the mathematics test should be primarily a measure of the applications of mathematical theory;
(2) analytical and reasoning skills should be measured;
(3) examinees should be expected to read and decipher mathematical context from a written form;
(4) problems should be presented in a practical, everyday context;
(5) test items should address more than one math concept;
(6) formulas should be provided for those questions requiring them;
(7) non-programmable calculators should be permitted for use by the examinees (this recommendation is currently being studied by GEDTS staff);
(8) the new test should address computer literacy.

Content

First among the changes in the revised tests is a re-definition of the content areas. What is currently called arithmetic has been divided into three separate areas: number relationships, measurement, and data analysis. These areas will comprise 50% of the test. Algebra and geometry will comprise 30% and 20% respectively. The content areas are summarized in the following table.

Content Area	% of Test
Arithmetic	
Measurement	30
Number Relationships	10
Data Analysis	10
Algebra	30
Geometry	20

The specific skills to be tested within each content area are listed below.

ARITHMETIC

Measurement
- perimeter
- area
- volume
- rate of motion
- rate of interest
- time, money

Number Relationships
- sequencing fractions and decimals
- ordering and comparing data
- exponents, scientific notation

Data Analysis
- calculating mean, median, ratio, and simple probability
- interpreting graphs and tables

ALGEBRA

- translating context into symbolic language
- setting up equations
- solving equations
- inequalities
- quadratic, linear functions
- factoring
- algebraic fractions

GEOMETRY

- parallel and perpendicular lines
- triangle theory
- slope, midpoint, distance problems
- Pythagorean theorem
- congruent, similar, isosceles, and right triangles

Context

The contexts of the mathematics questions, insofar as possible, are realistic (rather than academic) tasks with which the adult student has had considerable experience. The situations are natural, rather than contrived, and deal with the world of work, the consumer, the computer, family experiences and situations, and so forth.

Sample Mathematics Test Items

Items 1 to 4 refer to the following information.

After several interviews, Pat was offered two jobs and had to decide which to take. The starting salary for Job A is $15,500 per year, with a 4% raise to be given after 6 months, and a 6% raise to be given after one year. She will have to drive 10 miles each way to this job, which will use about 20 gallons of gas per month in her car, and she will have to pay $50 per month for parking. The monthly salary for Job B is $1350 with a 10% raise to be given after one year. There are no parking facilities at Job B, so Pat will have to use a combination of bus and subway transportation. Each way, the bus fare is $.50, and then the subway fare is $1.50. Both jobs require 5 days of work per week. Pat's decision on which job to take is based only on which job will net her more money, since both jobs appear equally interesting to her.

1. At Job A, what will Pat's salary be after one year, to the nearest dollar?

   (1) $16,120
   (2) $16,430
   (3) $17,050
   (4) $17,087
   (5) Insufficient data is given to solve the problem.

2. Including gas and parking, how much will it cost Pat for transportation each month if she takes Job A?

   (1) $71.80
   (2) $72.40
   (3) $74.60
   (4) $77.00
   (5) Insufficient data is given to solve the problem.

3. At Job B, what will Pat's annual salary be after one year?

   (1) $1,485
   (2) $16,200
   (3) $17,050
   (4) $17,820
   (5) Insufficient data is given to solve the problem.

4. Including bus and subway fare, approximately how much will it cost Pat for transportation each month if she takes Job B?

   (1) $80.00
   (2) $70.00
   (3) $40.00
   (4) $20.00
   (5) Insufficient data is given to solve the problem.

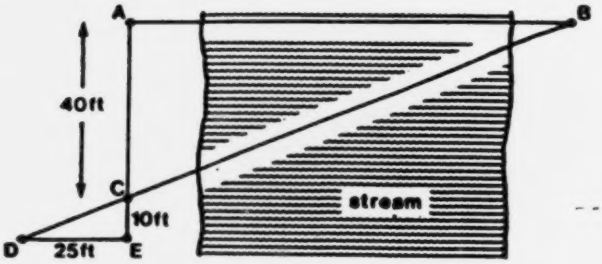
5. In loading cartons, a shipper places parcels with the greatest weight on the bottom and parcels with the least weight on top. Five parcels are to be placed in a carton. The parcels have the following weights:

   parcel A – 3 *ounces*
   parcel B – 0.5 *ounces*
   parcel C – 200 *ounces*
   parcel D – 10 *pounds*
   parcel E – 5.5 *pounds*

   Which of the following sequences correctly lists the order in which the parcels should be placed in the carton?

   (1) C, D, B, E, A
   (2) D, C, E, A, B
   (3) C, D, E, A, B
   (4) E, B, C, D, A
   (5) E, C, D, A, B

Item 6 refers to the following figure.



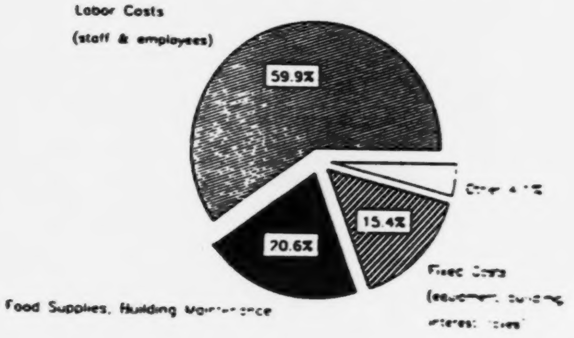
6. A surveyor made the measurements shown in the above diagram. What is the straight line distance (in feet) from A to B across the stream?

   (1) 50
   (2) 75
   (3) 80
   (4) 100
   (5) 150

7. In a charity marathon race, the ratio of men to women was 24:5. If there were 144 men in the race, how many *people* participated?

   (1) 29
   (2) 30
   (3) 149
   (4) 173
   (5) 174

8. If the total budget for a nursing home is 2 million dollars per year, and there are 100 staff members and employees, what is the average yearly income of each staff member or employee, as based upon the graph below?



   (1) \$ 10,000
   (2) \$ 12,000
   (3) \$ 20,000
   (4) \$120,000
   (5) Insufficient data is given to solve the problem.

9. An annual report of a dry cleaning business contains 180 pages. The average number of words on a page is 350. The speed of the computer printer used to print the report is 70 words per minute. Which of the following expressions gives the approximate number of *hours* it will take to print the report?

   (1) (180 x 350)/(70 x 60)
   (2) (180 x 350)/70
   (3) (180 x 350 x 60)/70
   (4) (180 x 350 x 70)/60
   (5) 180 x 350 x 70 x 60

10. Each of the expressions below can be simplified EXCEPT

    (1) $X - 1$
    (2) $X^2 - 1$
    (3) $X^2 - X$
    (4) $X^4 - 1$
    (5) $X^4 - X^2$

FORMULAS

Description	Formula
AREA of a:	
square	$a = b^2$; where a = area, b = base
rectangle	$a = bh$; where a = area, b = base, h = height
triangle	$a = (bh)/2$; where a = area, b = base, h = height
circle	$a = \pi r^2$; where a = area, $\pi \cong 3.14$, r = radius
PERIMETER of a:	
square	$p = 4b$; where p = perimeter, b = base
rectangle	$p = 2b + 2h$; where p = perimeter, b = base, and h = height
triangle	$p = a + b + c$; where p = perimeter, a, b, and c are the sides of the triangle
circumference of a circle	$c = \pi d$; where c = circumference, $\pi \cong 3.14$, d = diameter
VOLUME of a:	
cube	$v = b^3$; where v = volume, b = side of the cube
rectangular container	$v = bhw$; where v = volume, b = base, h = height, and w = width
cylinder	$v = \pi r^2 h$; where v = volume, $\pi \cong 3.14$, r = radius, and h = height
Pythagorean relationship	$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$; where c = hypotenuse, a and b are the legs of the right triangle
distance between two points in the plane	$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$; where (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) represent two points in the plane
slope of a line	$s = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$; where (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) represent two points in the plane
mean	$\text{mean} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$; where the x's are the values for which a mean is desired, and n = number of values in the series
median	median = the point in an ordered set of numbers at which half of the numbers are above and half of the numbers are below this value
simple interest	$i = prt$; where i = interest, p = principal, r = rate, t = time
distance as function of rate and time	$c = rt$; where d = distance, r = rate, t = time
total cost	$c = nr$; where c = total cost, n = number of units, and r = cost per unit

Summary

In summary, the design for the GED Tests to be introduced in 1988 is the product of the combined efforts of people throughout the adult and secondary education community. The efforts of the GED Testing Service staff have been guided by the many diverse views of this constituency and by national reports characterizing secondary education in America. The GED Tests that result from these efforts will:

- demand more highly developed levels of critical thinking and problem solving;
- reflect the many roles of individuals (e.g., worker, family member, consumer, and citizen of the country and of the world);
- acknowledge the sources of change affecting individuals and society (e.g., rapid introduction of computers, pervasive impact of television, shifting political priorites, and new opportunities afforded by scientific advances);
- contain settings that adult examinees will recognize as relevant to daily life.

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The Use of Oral History in Adult Literacy Programs

This paper describes special needs of adults who are beginning readers, and how oral history techniques make a ready complement to language-experience based programs in teaching adults to read. A brief review of the problems in the field of adult literacy will place the discussion of these programs and techniques in some perspective.

Illiteracy in America - An Overview

The problem of illiteracy among adults in this country has received a fair amount of attention the past few years. A stream of public service announcements has publicized toll free numbers for potential tutors and students, politicians have bemoaned the national level of literacy achievement, and corporations have become involved in a variety of literacy programs, ranging from Shakey's reading program for school children to USA Today's "Literacy Challenge."

In spite of these efforts and attention, we have a long way to go in marshalling our resources in a meaningful way, and in general, the entire problem has been over-simplified. The helplessness felt by adult illiterates seems to be matched with disarray and confusion in adult education about the extent of the problem, the "cures," and the values and uses of literacy. There is no clear-cut agreement on what constitutes literacy and consequently, on how many adult illiterates there are. Estimates of the number of illiterates range from 13% to 40% of the adult population. These disparities result largely from different views of what minimal or functional literacy is and how it is to be measured. Hunter and Harman sum up the situation regarding estimates: "The available statistics--however inaccurate, distorted, culturally biased, and occasionally contradictory they may be--do have a kind of gross truth," (1979:240). I join my colleagues who suggest: 1.) an operational definition of adult illiteracy at this time is not possible (Cervero, 1985); 2.) there is no real body of cumulative knowledge or theory building (Plecas & Sork, 1986); and 3.) there should be a moratorium on collecting data on illiterate populations and describing programs. Presently, meaningful evaluation by literacy organizations is just not possible - resources are unavailable and the data lack validity (McGrail, 1984).

With some certainty, though, a few things are known about adult illiteracy and literacy programs. We know that a small fraction of the adult illiterate population is enrolled in programs, that most of the students enrolled are less than 35

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years old, that most students do not stay in programs long enough to effect change in their lives, and that literacy instruction by itself will not solve a variety of social problems. We also know that volunteerism cannot begin to meet needs, that most adults served in literacy efforts are in programs funded by the federal government with some state support, and that literacy programs have not been able to reach the hard-core poor. Community-based literacy initiatives and peer-tutoring models have been advocated by many as the best hopes for attracting these hard-to-reach adults (Bear, Ferry & Templeton, 1987; Hunter & Harman, 1979; Kozol, 1985).

In terms of instruction, the full picture of literacy proficiency needs to be addressed. There is far too great an emphasis on reading, and a general neglect of thinking and writing. Literacy proficiency and development are complex phenomena. As the short story writer Flannery O'Connor suggested, reading and writing are habits which must be nurtured over a long period of time. In short, there is no quick-fix to achieving literacy proficiency; a long-term commitment and investment by both students and teachers is necessary. Adult beginning readers have the longest road to travel.

Adult Beginning Readers

As many as one-third of adult illiterates may be classified as beginning readers, and includes students for whom English is a second language as well as native speakers of English. Along the narrow vertical dimension of reading achievement described by Stedman and Kaestle (1987), beginning readers read at or below a third grade reading level. Along the pragmatic horizontal dimension, beginning readers are unable to read newspapers or public documents, and in fact, there is nothing they can read with ease. In most programs for beginning readers, phonics is over-emphasized, and the students have very few opportunities to read fluently in meaningful material. This over-emphasis on phonics stems from a lack of training on the part of teachers (over two-thirds of whom are not trained professionals) and a lack of reading materials appropriate for adults. While there has been an explosion in the high-interest low vocabulary market, it is still difficult to find materials written at a first through third grade reading level which are appropriate for adults. How long will a student stay in a program reading controlled vocabulary material with meaningless sentences like: "Can the pan fan the man?"

There are a variety of other ways of describing the reading behaviors of beginning readers (Bear, 1987). Beginning readers tend to read aloud when they read to themselves, they tend to fingerpoint, and they read disfluently, and without expression, at a rate no faster than 80 words per minute. In terms of general literacy proficiency, beginning readers have a concept of word-can track a line of memorized text. They collect sight words slowly, and have difficulty writing more than a few lines of text without great effort. In terms of word knowledge and spelling, beginning readers show some mastery of initial and final consonants, and while they may represent each stressed syllable with a vowel, they are experimenting with short vowel patterns, and are not aware of the more abstract principles for representing long vowels.

The Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is an effective method of teaching beginning readers. The LEA has been used in a variety of settings, but has had its major impact with school children in the primary grades (Stauffer, 1980). Over the past ten years my colleagues and I have used the LEA in our work with adults.

One of the major techniques of the LEA is the dictation cycle, where the student dictates an account of a meaningful personal experience to the teacher, who records verbatim what the student says. The dictation is read back to the student for revision, changes as directed by the student are made, and a title is given to the piece. The account is then typed, and becomes a major part of the student's reading experience. Students reread several of their dictations each session.

The dictation cycle serves a number of purposes. It helps students make the transition from spoken to written language. Collecting the dictations the teacher is a secretary, and throughout the entire process, shows respect for students' language and experiences. Rereading dictations students have the opportunity to experience what fluent reading is like, and the dictation serves as a source for collecting sight words which can then be used in word study. Finally, dictations provide interesting and relevant reading material not only to the person who dictated the account, but to fellow students who share a similar experiential and language background and similar interests. In essence, these dictated accounts are a student's oral history, and as such, can provide a focus to an entire adult literacy program.

Oral History Projects

Oral history is perhaps as old as the written word, for to put it simply, oral history is the recording in written form of the spoken word. In modern times, oral history has become an important research tool of historians, made easier by modern recording equipment. In America, oral history techniques have been used to preserve folktales (i.e., Grandfather Tales, Gumbo Ya-Ya and The Jack Tales), family histories and culture (i.e., Roots, Hard Times and Hanta Yo), and has recently served as the basis for a number of novels (i.e., Oral History and Past Titan Rock).

Over the past twenty years oral history has been used in classrooms and schools as an exciting technique for integrating the language arts and content area subjects. The Foxfire Book (1972) and the subsequent Foxfire volumes are the best known examples of student oral history publications. By 1983, Sitton, Mehaffy, & Davis (1983) report that there were over 200 "Foxfire-concept magazines (often called 'cultural journalism') . . . scattered widely across the United States, functioning successfully within a wide range of community, school, and classroom circumstances, and at grade levels from middle school to junior college," (p.10). In these programs students interview community members about a variety of subjects. The entire process, from choosing a topic, researching topics and subjects, interviewing, transcribing, revising, editing to production/publication can be a lengthy, involved process which has a great deal of ecological validity, and above all interest to students.

Oral history as a technique is easily adapted to a variety of grades and subjects, and the full range of activities is not necessary or appropriate in all cases; it is unreasonable to expect children in the early primary grades to work so closely with their tapes and subjects, transcribing and editing. We have made similar adjustments in working with adult beginning readers who have limited involvement in their literacy programs, attending classes at most for an hour, three or four times a week, and who like the primary children have limited written language skills. The dictation process can easily take-on an oral history structure, where the students serve as the informants, recording their own stories and experiences with the help of a teacher or a classmate who can write with fair fluency. In using dictations, teachers learn to listen to their students, and students see that teachers find students' stories interesting enough to record and publish. An atmosphere of mutual respect is created, and peer-tutoring and discussions are encouraged.

Oral History Topics

The actual focus of these dictations varies with the interests of the students and the locale. Sitton et. al discuss a variety of oral history options including: oral histories of neighborhoods, schools, industries, trades and professions, institutions and organizations, histories of local buildings, traditional crafts, and the effects of local and national events, memory books, research projects of the origins of local place names, life histories, oral life histories with a topical or chronological focus, student histories, histories of folk/popular artists, family life histories, genealogies, archives, cookbooks, and roots, oral traditional histories (orally transmitted recollections of events experienced by others), family oral histories in "natural contexts", histories based on photographs, histories of communities during wars, mainstreet oral histories, environmental oral histories, chronicles of recent local events, studies in community social history, then and now studies, ethnic variations, ethnic history projects, studies of local campaigns or elections, political studies of controversies, local lives in politics, local political roles, structure of local politics, and local political meetings, folklore studies of students, children, families, communities, and ethnic variations in folklore. There is some overlapping across topics, but the possibilities are endless.

In working with adult beginning readers, we've had excellent luck with dictations of family histories, sports, immigrations, social problems and work experiences. In addition, we've used the dictations to help students reflect on their academic progress and establish personal and academic goals for themselves.

Procedures

Our oral history projects have been housed in daytime and evening pre-GED classes, prison education programs, university reading centers, vocational programs, and with volunteer literacy initiatives. Presently, we're working with the Nevada Literacy Coalition in training teachers statewide to develop similar programs. In these programs there is typically a mix of beginning and functional readers. Because the functional readers can find plenty of reading material they can read on their own, and because they can write with fair fluency, functional readers no longer need dictations. Therefore, their contributions are usually written accounts.

At the beginning of the program the teacher explains to students the varying purposes of dictations just as they have been described above. Also at the beginning and periodically throughout the program, the teacher facilitates discussions of possible projects, and shares publications from other classes, including oral histories available commercially (i.e. Foxfire volumes). The teacher proceeds with a discussion of how the class will be organized, and notes that as a group dictations and writings will be shared. After the first round of dictations and writing students gather to share their work. Students discuss what they liked about the stories, they read each other's works, and they share their interests. For example, last year, because a number of students were into fishing, a series of fish stories were collected and reproduced. Copies of the collection were distributed to contributors, and several copies were placed in the class library (see the hunting and fishing dictations in the Appendix). Since I have been in Nevada we have collected a variety of dictations on rodeos, ranching, and folklore.

In vocational programs students have dictated accounts of their vocational training projects. These dictations have helped students organize their experiences, and have been particularly useful to new entrants who want to know about the program and how they will proceed with specific projects. For many students these materials have been far more effective in familiarizing them with technical vocabulary than have the traditional training manuals. Furthermore, once a student has reread several dictations as well as his own, he is better able to read the training manuals (see the dictations in the Work section of the Appendix).

Just about every five weeks the teacher makes time to discuss with students how they think they are progressing, and what goals they have for themselves. Dictations have helped students organize their thoughts about their personal goals and present a written record of their stated goals. Setting goals on paper often provides additional strength and commitment (see the dictations in the Goal Setting section of the Appendix).

Students reread their own dictations on a regular basis, and they also read the work of their classmates. Tape recordings are made by teachers and students. These recordings are used by students for support as they listen and follow along. After listening to a tape recording several times, students are able to read the dictations with fair fluency and with very few errors. The tape recording allows students to read more difficult materials. These stories have a special meaning, one because the reader may know the author, and two because the stories have a local flavor both in terms of content and language use. In several of the literacy programs students have illustrated the dictations. These drawings are reproduced with the dictations.

Extensions

These dictations lead to additional studies on particular topics. For example, in Nevada students have become interested in Cowboy poetry and rhymes, (i.e. Cannon, 1985 & Kiskaddon, 1987), the letters and diaries of early settlers, (i.e., Stewart, 1960), and state histories, (i.e., Earl, 1986). The poems, letters and diaries tend to be fairly low in terms of readability and are therefore readily accessible to beginning readers. The teacher also reads to the students for at least ten minutes each session. The oral history references mentioned above are often used for this oral reading.

Conclusion

Student comments summarize the difficulties faced by adult beginning readers:

> "Why don't I come everyday? That stuff we have to read is dull. It's not my life."
>
> "I've read about 40 of the exercises. I remember only one of them. It was funny - about how hard it is to get tops off drink and sardine cans. I remember it because it was something that happened to me. The other stories - I can't remember anything about them."
>
> "The things I read aren't in my words, my way of talking. It makes it hard to get started and keep going in reading."
>
> (From the Teacher's Manual of the High Interest Reading Kit, p. 1.)

Literacy programs in remote and rural areas face additional problems, most notably the lack of resources and an older population. The use of dictations as oral histories addresses these problems. The dictations give these students opportunities to preserve and share their past, and at the same time, the dictations give power and control to students as they move towards functional reading. We want all of our students to experience the success Raymond felt when he wrote: "Once it seen like I ginog nowhere in edatetoin. but I thank deffrind now. I finding out the seakre and that a good feeling."

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Appendix

Samples of Dictations

A variety of dictations from adult literacy programs in Nevada, New York, and Virginia are presented below. In addition to the complete dictations, the titles and excerpts from a number of dictations from the High Interest Reading Kit are included.

Fishing, Hunting and Rodeos:

1. The One That Didn't Get Away

Me and my dad were at the Truckee River fishing. We were sitting there and we each had fish. He had nine and I had ten. It was getting late and he said to me, "I wish we could catch one fish, then we'll go cuz it's getting late."

My dog is sitting there on the bank looking down at the river then this fish came onto the shore right up to the dog. I couldn't figure out why it would do that.

We just picked it up and left. I guess a bigger fish must have chased it down or something. This really happened.

Kevin L.

2. The Great Hunt

I started right early one morning. I went up on Chalk Rock in Covesville. I had heard there was a 200 pound black bear, and I wanted him for a trophy. So I started early. I took my cousin's two best bear dogs and my brother's 30-08 rifle with 200, 80 grain bullets. I must of walked two miles and hadn't seen a thing. So I decided I'd set down and eat lunch. So I was eating lunch and heard a sound. I turned around and looked but I didn't see a thing. So I went back and set down and I heard it again. And I looked again. I didn't see nothing. So I just turned around. I heard it again. I looked and there it stood-a big black bear. I run down the mountain about forty feet. I look, aim at his heart. I shot, he fell down, and run toward me. I run and jumped up on a tree. The bear come up on the tree and started shaking it. I took aim for his head. I shot again. He walked about five feet away from the tree and fell down. But I didn't come out of the tree for about two hours. I went down the mountain, got some help, and drug him out, carried him to the checking station and had him checked in. They said he weighed 325 pounds.

It wasn't two weeks and everyone in the county knew I had killed a great black bear on Chalk Road.

Daniel T.

3. Two Nights in A Row

It was about 10:45 and I was in the kitchen brushing my teeth and I heard the grunt and I didn't pay no attention to it. And the second time I heard it I looked over at my brother Junior and it seemed like he heard it too. He jumps up and he runs in the bedroom to grab a light. He runs out the house and he has to go around the corner to get to the smokehouse.

Behind the smokehouse there's a pig pen. He runs up on a big brown bear. He falls down backwards. He jumps up, ran into the house, grabs the gun, loads it, and then runs out to the pen again. By the time he had got out there the bear had crossed our neighbor's fence and went up in the mountains.

Last night about one, he came back. My other brother Tony grabs his gun and the light. Ran out to the pig pen to check if the bear was out there last night. When he was out there the bear had left. How we know that he was out there my other brother came home late and it's a road he has to come up by like a path, and he seen him. He meets Tony as he comes into the house. He yells and tells Tony, "There's a bear at the pig pen!" They both go to the pen together and the bear had left. I guess what it is he's coming to eat the grain from the buckets that my dad keeps it in.

Connie W.

4. My $1,800 Belt Buckle

I was working for a ranch called the Silver Spring Ranch. My best friend and I worked there all summer. I got hired to work a back-hoe. When I first went to work there was a guy there trying to break a horse; and I started laughing at him. The foreman asked me if I thought I could do better; and smart-ass, teenaged me said, "Yeah!" I got on the horse and rode him a little bit longer than the other guy did. So I lost my back-hoe job and ended up breaking horses all summer.

The day before school started, the guy told us to be at the ranch by 6:00 a.m. We were expecting to have to work all day. When we got there, he gave us free reign to do whatever we wanted to have fun. There was a big barbecue; and it was the only time we got to go in the swimming pool. The crew rode in a rodeo for belt buckles and for double paychecks. If you came in first in your event your paycheck doubled and you got a belt buckle. Your main rodeo event couldn't be the same as your job.

My main event was roping. I can't rope worth shit. The ropers' main event was bronco riding. The rodeo got started. At the end, it came down tome, Tracy, and two girls. Tracy won his event and came in second overall. I came in first overall. The last event was bronco riding. You have to stay on the bronco for 10 seconds. I stayed on. The pickup man came to pick me up; but my foot got caught in the bronco's sash, which is like a girth.

The horse and my leg went one way, the pickup man and I went the other. My knee got twisted to the side of my leg. My best friend made a bet with his girlfriend. She bet that I'd go straight to the hospital before I got my trophy buckle and double paycheck. He bet that I'd get them before I let them take me anywhere. He won. The hospital bill and drugs were $1,800. That's why I say it's an $1,800 belt buckle.

Rock P.

5. Restoring My Truck

The first thing I did was tear it down, taking the engine out. Then I took the front fenders and grill off, took the bed off, then I took the cab off, cleaned the frame, painted it, replaced all the worn and broken parts, rebuilt the engine, installed it, put the new cab on, add air conditioning to it, and stripped the inside of the cab out and painted it. Now what I have to finish is put the fenders back on, the grill and the hood, put the windows back in, put the bed on, the doors, and everything back in the cab. Then it's ready for the body work and the paint on the outside and then it will be complete.

It's a '71 three-quarter ton 4x4 Chevy. It used to be red, black, yellow, green, and has some blue in it, and a little bit of white. I have already rebuilt the brakes and replaced the brakelines, rebuilt the transmission, and the new motor is a 454. It ought to make it run good.

I use it for work-hauling wood, scrap metal, pulling the boat and the trailer. It is used for fun and work.

Rick W.

6. Excerpts

Riding to the Calgary Stampede - Farthing and Jordan got contracts from the Calgary Stampede in Canada to bring riding bulls, steers, and bucking horses up to the rodeo.

A Hunter's Experience - I was shooting 30-06 two hundred forty-six grain bullets and I was walking along. The dogs had run some deer down to the woods.

Bear Hunting - There is an old saying, that a bear tracks you.

Work: (These "content" dictations are particularly useful for vocational training.)

7. Problems of the Afternoon

The huskies went down so that we could repair oil leaks. We found three hydraulic hoses that leak. We found the accumulator valve had bad o-rings in it. One was sheared which was causing a bad oil leak. We had to replace a pressure sensor and a mainline oil filter. Also, we had to replace one Bimba air cylinder on the robot. I had a shrink tunnel go down because the shaft on the blower spun in the baring, which caused the shaft to wear out. So we had to replace the shaft with a new one, and before it was reassembled, I left.

Richard W.

8. How to Apply Artificial Nails

First you set up the manicuring table. Then you sit the patron down. You take off the old nail polish. Then you file the person's nails.

Then you soak the hand, and then you take cuticle softener and you put it around the whole nail. And then you take an orange wood stick and wrap cotton around it. You clean underneath the nail with the orange wood stick. And then you rinse the hand off, take the metal pusher with water on it and then push back the cuticle and remove all the dead skin around the nail.

Then clean off the nail and put cuticle oil around the nail. Wipe the oil off and cut the cuticle. After you are done you pick out the nail size. Then you cut the artificial nail to the shape of the patron's nail.

Take the glue that they give you and apply it to the artificial nail. Press down on the nail. Wipe off the extra glue on the sides. You begin to put the nail polish on after waiting a couple of minutes for the nail to dry all the way. Then you're done.

Maybe one beauty parlor will charge you fifty dollars for the whole ten fingers for the first time. And then each time you come back to have it reglued it will cost you five to seven dollars for each finger.

Debbie F.

9. Automatic Transmission

Automatic transmission is operated by the torque converter. The storage for the oil is in the torque converter. The converter is bolted to the flywheel. When the engine is running the converter is running at all times. When you put your car in gear the torque converter sends the oil through the hydraulic part of the transmission.

John S.

Goal Setting:

10. Your Own Apartment

There is supposed to be a kitchen and a stove and a table and a refrigerator, and dishes. Also, you have a telephone. In the bedroom you have to have a bed, lights, my own tv, my own record player, bureaus, bathroom, bathtub. Buy your own picture frames and hang them up on the wall, and make your house look like something.

Shirley T.

11. Excerpts

Me as a Nurse - When I was young I never thought I would ever be a nurse. . . . That's why I want to be a nurse, so I can help people get back on their feet.

My Wish - As I was growing up, I wanted to do something interesting with my life.

A Savings Account - I want to open a savings account because I want a car for this winter.

Why I Wanted My Education - I wasn't learning anything. So I dropped out of school and decided to go to work.

Reading and Writing - This is a true story about how it affects a person not to know how to read and write. . . . I tell everybody about the Adult Education school who has dropped out or can't read because I'm learning to do something on my own.

Life in an Institution:

12. A Baby in the Training School

Everybody was in the bed. Her name is Jean Miles. So, we all got up and we heard a baby crying. We looked into the room that she sleeps at. And there was a baby in a wash tub. The night attendant, Mrs. Hodgins, was up and she says, "What's going on?" We told her that we heard a baby crying. Cause she said, "Margaret, go in the room and check." So I did, and that's where I found the baby came out of her stomach in the wash pan, laying right in the bed. You talk about a lot of blood on the baby! They had to put it in the hospital and after they tend to it in the hospital they took it away from her and put it out in the home so someone could take care of the baby for her and feed it and everything.

Margaret B.

13. The Training School

When I was thirteen I went to the training school. I lived there for nine years and eight months. It wasn't easy living there. You couldn't have your freedom. All you did was watch tv and sit around all day. You could walk around but you couldn't leave the grounds. If you left the cops would get you. I ran away thirteen times and I didn't get nowhere. I got out when I was twenty-one. Then I volunteered to come here.

John S.

14. Excerpts

Caring About Your Family - I been locked up ever since I was nine. . . . I was scared because I was locked up.

How I Found Out I Was In Vietnam - One day, I think it was October the 17, 1971, I took off on the C-5, me and about eight other team members.

Life of a Recruit - I enlisted in the Marine Corps down at the Post Office.

Civics:

15. Excerpts

Registering to Vote - When we first went down to City Hall to register to vote, they ask you questions, like your name.

A Letter to the President - I am a registered voter writing to tell you we need more equipment.

Food Stamps - When I went to apply for food stamps it was really hard because I really didn't know how to go about it. . . . A food stamp budget goes on how many children I had and how much rent I was paying.

Learning to Fill Out Money Orders - It is good for everybody to learn how to make out money orders and address envelopes.

Election Day - I was feeling happy yesterday, thinking, "I voted. I helped pick the President."

Family Life:

16. Excerpts

Journal of My Grandbaby - Helen is looking to go in the hospital any time. I am hoping that it will be a little girl.

Being a Single Parent - I think being a single parent has its ups and downs.

The Divorce Problem - It is a big decision to think over before you get divorced. If you have children involved in the marriage, it would really affect the kids more so than the mother.

The Beauty of Natural Childbirth - Mike and I were married for two months. I had nausea and was sick.

Personal Histories:

17. Excerpts

Taxi Cab - When I first started driving a taxi cab I was driving a school bus also. I'd get off the school bus and start driving the cab.

Sweet Country Life - When I was about 11 years old we moved to the country.

Looking Back - I started with the railroads in 1941. I started out working on steam engines.

Tater Tales - My father raised us up on the farm and taught us how to raise potatoes and corn and other crops. This is the story about how you raise those good old potatoes.

Turkey Farms - My parents bought the farm, the poultry farm, sometimes in the fifties and it already had the name Piedmont Turkey Farm.

Christmas in the Country - We lived in the country in Southwestern Virginia, about two miles from town.

Making Molasses - I'm going to tell a story about how we made molasses on the farm. . . . We used to have molasses parties with popcorn and molasses mixed together.

My Grandmother - My grandmother is seventy-eight years old and she had always lived there. . . . In fact, my grandmother lived there during the Civil War.

The Flood - On the 19th of August it started to rain about 1:00 in the day, I believe.

Old Fashioned Cures - When I was a baby, I was sick. . . . Well, blackberries are good, but dewberries are really good medicine.

Country School - Our school just had one great big room in it.

Old Fashioned Eating - In the old days, our kitchen was a shed-room built onto the house, and it had a crack between the roof of the other house.

Farm Life - We lived in one farmhouse next to a creek. . . . And I remember Daddy working us almost to death carrying the corn and shucking it so mother could can it.

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Drop-Out Prevention: An Ecological Approach

ABSTRACT

A total immersion (residential) eight-week summer youth program, designed to deter dropout rates in rural areas of Northern Lousiana and to provide a model for such programs, was implemented at Louisiana Tech University. The program will begin it's second year of operation during the summer of 1987. Initial data from the first year's program (1986) resulted in 100% return rate of 80 participants to school the following Fall.

The model program incorporates three major components into the education and training of 80 fourteen- and fifteen-year-old public school students who have been identified by their local school counselor as being at 'high-risk' for dropping out of school. First, participants receive academic instruction, earning 1/2 credit in both Mathematics and English to be applied toward high school graduation. Second, participants receive eight weeks of vocational 'on-the-job' training, working twenty hours a week. Third, participants receive personal counseling (24 hour accessibility), vocational/career counseling, and personal contact with student counselors on a twenty-four hour basis. Additional curriculum components include: computer literacy instruction; recreation/leisure skills training; reading,writing, math tutoring; drug counseling; birth control instruction and financial counseling.

During the 1986 program, statistically significant ($p<.001$) progress was made by participants in both mathematics and English during the 8 week program. Pre-post test data, raw-score California Achievement Test (Level 18) data, indicate an average gain of 57.2% and 51.6% in mathematics computation and concepts, respectively. In language skills, mean increases ranged from 17.7% for comprehension to 44.5% for spelling.

For presentation, the program description, data collected during both years of the program, and implications for practitioners will be provided.

FORTY RURAL SCHOOLS--
FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR COOPERATIVE SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT INITIATIVES IN RURAL TENNESSEE

A Research Report

Presented Before

National Rural and Small Schools Conference

Arlington, Virginia

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FORTY RURAL SCHOOLS--
FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR COOPERATIVE SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT INITIATIVES IN RURAL TENNESSEE

During the past three years, The Tennessee Tech Rural Education Research and Service Consortium has been collecting data to compare rural schools in the Upper Cumberland region of Tennessee with the national sample of schools included in Kappa Delta Pi's Good Schools Project (GSP) (Frymier, 1984). The GSP instrumentation used included a 200 item multiple choice Teacher Survey and a 100 item multiple choice Older Student Survey for grades 4-12. Data collection in each school consisted of teacher administration of the Older Student Survey to one intact heterogeneous class at each grade five through twelve and individual teacher completion of the Teacher Survey. In no school were fewer than one-fourth of the students in grades 5-12 surveyed.

Data from thirty-nine schools were classified according to the school organization (elementary, middle, high and unit schools) and compared statistically with the GSP data from corresponding groups of schools. The Chi-Square statistic was used and an acceptance level of 0.001 established. Significant findings were compiled for use by the University and public schools in planning, implementing and evaluating strategies for school improvement.

The number of significant differences was large. This would be expected in comparing any sample of schools against a sample of the best in the nation. Also, the rural teachers who were surveyed tend to have limited experiences beyond their own community and therefore may have distorted perceptions regarding their own performance and the school program.

Specific findings and the implications for collaborative university/school improvement initiatives were categorized in the areas of curriculum improvement, instruction, administrative behavior, affective development of students, and school/community relations. Some of these initiatives have been in place for some time, others are just beginning, and others are directions for future efforts.

Curriculum Improvement

Findings. In the area of curricular goal attainment, every item on the teacher survey and most on the student survey yielded a significant difference favoring GSP schools. This was true whether the goal was intellectual, personal, or social. Specific areas of concern were critical thinking and reasoning skills, skills in evaluation, information, and arguments, effective expression of opinions, reading skills, writing skills, factual knowledge and subject area concepts, attitudes toward learning, feeling of self-worth, independence and self-reliance, and friendliness and respect toward people of different races and religions.

Implications. It was determined from the findings that a major need exists for a systematic review, analysis, and evaluation of individual school curricula. In the absence of clearly stated and commonly understood goals, it is difficult to tell whether or not school goals are being met. Schools are being encouraged to engage their faculties, students and parents in the development of long- and short-range curriculum goals. Five schools are receiving assistance with the process. Locally developed goals will assist the teachers in evaluating and adapting state curriculum guides and nationally developed textbooks to meet needs of rural schools.

Instruction

Findings. Significant differences favoring the GSP schools were found in the teaching of critical thinking and reasoning, student expectations, instructional variety, use of cooperative learning, use of supplementary materials, use of class time, and teacher availability to assist students beyond class time. In the rural schools there were unclear directions and expections, a tendency to ignore weaker students, angry responses to wrong answers, and uneven enforcement of classroom rules.

Implications. Rural teachers need further training in instructional and classroom management skills. This training must include practice of newly learned teaching skills accompanied by feedback to each teacher. School/system-based graduate cohort programs for teachers which allow for and encourage strong personal/professional relationships that support change and encourage peer coaching are well underway in three sites and have been initiated this fall in three additional sites.

The use of school time is of particular concern. Often this is a schoolwide problem reflecting a non-academic climate that permeates the entire program. The climate may center on social interests, athletic interests, or a host of other possibilities. School climate studies are needed which go beyond the categorization of climate and look in detail at how time in the school is used and lost. Increasing the teachers' role in decision making can have a major impact on the use of school time for they are the group most concerned about this problem.

This is not to say that the teachers are blameless. Within individual classrooms poor organization, inadequate planning and preparation, inefficient classroom management or inappropriate instruction for individuals or groups may contribute to substantive losses for whole classes. Teachers in the graduate cohorts are being encouraged to experiment with academic learning time and to implement many of the management strategies recommended by Carolyn Evertson (1984).

Administrative Behavior

Findings. Rural teachers perceived their principals as less likely to suggest or encourage trying new ideas, less apt to recognize and reward teachers for accomplishments, and less likely to accurately represent the needs of the staff and students. The trust in the principal was significantly lower than in GSP schools. Other significant differences were found in the areas of support services, buildings and grounds, library resources, instructional resources and secretarial services. Many of these are related to the dismal level of funding in rural communities, but effective administrative leadership could reduce the impact of limited resources.

Implications. The role of the principal in today's school is complex and poorly defined. Each constituency has differing competing expectations and demands. Principals in rural schools are particularly vunerable because of the personal relationships between school and community, the political nature of personnel practices, and the minimal level of administrative support services. A one-day seminar for newly appointed principals is planned to assist them in forming a network among themselves and University personnel having expertise in administrative practice, the location and allocation of resources, and mobilization of community, faculty and students to identify and solve problems.

Through work with the faculties of two rural schools in a graduate cohort, one school has implemented and the other is discussing an instructional leadership team to participate in school decision making at an input and reaction level. Teachers are elected by their peers to meet regularly with the principal to discuss current and upcoming school happenings and to provide input on the probable impact of alternative decisions.

The Rural Education Consortium is becoming active in grantsmanship in an effort to increase the resources available to rural schools. Some proposals are generated through the University to serve multiple school systems: others are written for and submitted by individual schools or systems. Outside monies are currently funding movement education and ballet in one school, a beginning band program in one school, physics by satellite in one school, a drop-out prevention program in one school, an elementary science program for rural students in two schools, and school music in three schools.

Affective Development of Students

Findings. The rural schools surveyed were less likely than GSP schools to teach friendliness and respect for people of different races and religions, to facilitate the social development of students, and to stress development of positive attitudes toward learning. Rural students reported that their teachers were more concerned about things than people and the succes in school was more attributable to luck than hard work.

Implications. The academic experience must not be artificially isolated from social development of students. Both the content of instruction and the methods by which it is taught should contribute to positive social and afective development of students. Courses in mastery and cooperative learning have been developed to assist teachers in implementing these strategies in their classrooms.

Although most of the rural teachers and administrators are natives of the region, they are frustrated by the sense of personal powerlessness and sense of inadequacy experienced by the rural poor. Success experiences are necessary to overcome these feelings and for students to perceive school as a good place. Rural teachers and administrators might find it profitable to develop greater depth in understanding of the culture of the region, particularly with respect to issues that affect motivation and achievement.

School and Community

Findings. Every item which inquired about parents and their involvement yielded a significant difference which favored GSP schools. Rural teachers were less reponsive to the concerns of parents. Rural parents were seen as less likely to discuss student problems with teachers, less apt to serve as school volunteers , and less likely to see that their children completed homework.

Implications. Rural schools need to increase parental participation beyond parent-teacher conferences to activities which enchance their understanding of the schooling process and its problems. The Rural Education Consortium is currently preparing a set of video tapes for a rural school to circulate among parents and community members to increase knowledge of the school program and expectations. One graduate cohort is using parent/community involvement as a central theme and conducting a series of studies to define the current status of community perceptions and the results of various parent involvement strategies.

Summary

The rural schools study clearly defines the major problems confronting schools in rural Middle Tennessee. These schools will never have the resources needed to really do the jobs their teachers and administrators would like to do. This shortage demands high levels of ingenuity and creativity in order to achieve more with less or to find effective alternatives.

A regional university such as Tennessee Tech can play an instrumental role in assisting schools to define their problems, propose probable solutions, locate necessary resources, and to implement and evaluate school improvement iniatives. The university cannot--must not--attempt to dictate but rather must work with school personnel. The schools and university need each other if the quality of the rural school experience is to prepare youth for the challenges of adulthood.

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Developing a Computer Literacy Course for Special Education Paraprofessionals: An Innovative Approach

Abstract

A course in computer literacy skills was developed from validated competencies using an interagency collaborative model which included the State Department of education, community colleges and regional agencies in Kansas. The paper describes the process used to develop the various stages of the course and includes specific rationale and information on the instructional design and microcomputer technology used by the course developers.

DEVELOPING A COMPUTER LITERACY COURSE FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION PARAPROFESSIONALS: AN INNOVATIVE APPROACH

Creating collaboration among the Kansas State Department of Education (KSDE), community colleges, universities and local education agencies resulted in the development of modules to be used to teach the use of the the microcomputer to special education paraprofessionals. The collaboration began in 1984 with the conceptualization of a project which would be administered by two sections of the KSDE--community colleges and special education--which are in two separate divisions of the KSDE as well.

In 1985 the Community College Special Education paraprofessional Program received a grant award from the United States Department of Education, Division of Personnel Preparation. The primary purpose of this project has been to develop and refine a statewide network for the preservice training of special education Paraprofessional through the nineteen community colleges in Kansas. The primary goal of this project is to provide the necessary resources to enable each college to participate at the level indicated by the need for special education paraprofessional training in the geographic area served by the college.

The project has emphasized the following major components:

1). Provide assistance in determining the training needs of paras by the community college geographic areas;

2) Provide assistance in development of specialized curriculum as indicated by needs assessment data;

3) Development of materials for use in the community college courses for paraprofessionals; and

4) Dissemination of information about the Kansas program through conference presentations, printed materials and other media.

These four components of the project are what bring us to Arlington, Virginia to present at the National Rural and Small Schools Conference.

Our needs assessments indicated a requirement for a specialized course for paraprofessionals working in classroom settings who assist teachers in the use of microcomputers for instruction and classroom management.

The project advisory council recommended a development process for the course. The membership of the Council is a paraprofessional, Social and Rehabilitation Adult Services state level administrator, and an Administrator from a special purpose school for severely multiply handicapped, a superintendent of schools, a principal , special education teacher, and faculty from six community colleges. They are indeed representative of many agencies and role groups--but best of all, they are a group who believe in collaboration, are very knowledgeable about the resources in the state, and are strongly concerned with the project delivering quality technical assistance and products. For those reasons, the following process was initiated.

The first step was the development of competencies by a University of Kansas consultant, Linda Davies. These competencies were then validated by a statewide committee of experts in both computer literacy and paraprofessional training. The membership of this committee included two community college educators, one administrator from a private special purpose school, two media/computer specialists who are also paraprofessional facilitators from local special education cooperatives, and a director of special education who has a national reputation (a good reputation, by the way) in utilization of computers in special education programs. This person Jim Wheeler, later became the primary developer of the course and accompanying materials.

The development and pilot testing of the instructional modules for the validated competencies were accomplished through a contract with the Colby Community College who then contracted with the Northwest Kansas Educational Service Center (A cooperative of twenty rural unified school districts). At the time of the course development, Jim Wheeler was the special education director for the service center. Linda Eisenbise, the coauthor, was also on staff. Jim and Linda's previous experience with teaching computer literacy skills to adult learns very much influenced the design of the course.

They first used the validated competencies as a guide to the scope and sequence for the course. They then treated the competencies as generalized goals and operationally defined each goal by specific objectives or learning outcomes to meet the intent of the competencies using Bloom's Classification System (knowledge, skills and attitudes)

The initial step in the process of operationally defining the competencies was to develop a working hierarchy or outline progression from the general matery statement down to the specific piece of content that needed to be taught. The labels used are somewhat arbitrary but served to provide a framework for a comprehensive outline of the content that needed to be developed in the course. The outline format used is shown below:

I. GOAL (Competency Statement)
    A. OBJECTIVES
        1. Enabling Learning Outcomes

            a. Knowledge

            b. Skills

c. Attitudes

A "fleshed out" example of a sequence or hierarchy of the general competency dealing with the effects of environmental factors on conditions of computer usage is shown below:

Goal 1

Demonstrate understanding of necessary environmental conditions of computer usage

Objective 1.a.

Understand the effect(s) of the following on computer hardware and software:

1.a.1 dust

Enabling Learning Outcomes

Knowledge (Students will be able to explain:)

- **The negative effect of dust on electrical contacts and switches**
- **The negative effect of dust on the cooling efficiency of components**
- **The negative effect of dust on external storage media: disks**
- **The negative effect of smoke residue on external storage media**

Skills (Students will be able to demonstrate:)

- **The ability to protect hardware from dusty environments**
- **The ability to protect software from dust or smokey environments**

Attitudes (Students will develop a positive attitude toward:)

- **The need for reasonable precautions in protecting hardware from dusty environs**
- **The need for reasonable precautions in protecting software from dust damage direct sunlight or extremes in temperature**

While there appears to be some redundancy in this approach, the course designers believed that the development of the scope and sequence and the correlation of the activities for the course were facilitated by this process. Reducing from the general to the very specific helped the developers to determine the optimum progression of the course units and where the overlaps would occur with other related topics. This process proved to be critical to the sequencing and organization of the course.

The knowledge and skills learning outcomes were easily defined in most cases while the attitudinal domain was more subtle and difficult to specify for most of the competencies. The course developer's previous experience with teaching computer literacy skills to adult learners had underscored the fact that attitudinal or affective domain issues are critical to the success of the course. When affective or attitude issues are not specifically planned for and measured in the design and evaluation of computer inservices, an important variable has been ignored.

The technology and automation represented by computers and related technology can trigger a variety of misgivings and even fear and anxiety in many adult learners. Some adults seem to associate the microcomputer with negative attributes including being too mechanistic, non- feeling and unresponsive to human needs. They are also viewed as sources of frustration and anger in a world that is evolving into more and more dependence on the "micro chip."

An important part of the learning outcome for special education paraprofessionals is the development of an increase in confidence and positive perceptions that will be crucial if they are to apply their newly acquired knowledge and skills. In addition, it is important to take learning-through-modeling into consideration. Adult's attitudes toward computers, if negative, could have a similar effect on the student's perceptions. The course developers believed that it was important to deal "up front" with the attitudinal issues, rather than to make the common assumption that positive attitudes "automatically" come along with increased skills and knowledge. It was the goal of the design of these materials that the students would be sensitized to the need for the development of a positive and self-confident attitude toward computers and technology in general. In the pilot study the evaluation of the attitude domain was accomplished through self-report pre and post tests. Discussion groups and material regarding the industrial age technologies and the newer information age technologies were used as activities to promote positive attitudes.

The course guidebook and materials were designed to be utilized in a number of different settings and instructional contexts by a variety of instructors with a range of knowledge and available materials. The experienced instructor can use the course as a guide and a resource in the development of a program of instruction or syllabi. The materials would then become a mere point of departure for the further development and/or refinement of the content .

The course developers choose to script the individual lessons using a Science of Instruction model (Resnik, 1974) which includes actual examples of what the instructor would say in lecture input much the same as an actor would read lines from a prepared script. The following lesson outline from Madeline Hunter's Mastery Teaching (Farrell, 1982) was used as a outline for developing the scripts:

Anticipatory Set activity(ies)

Input (Lecture, Demonstration, etc.)

Checks for Understanding (Diagnostic Feedback for the Instructor)

Re-Teaching techniques

Guided Practice Suggestions

Independent Practice Laboratory Activities

Suggested Evaluation Techniques

The lessons are divided into six units. Lessons within a unit have knowledge, skills and attitude objectives. The design of the course incorporates the principle of Mastery Teaching developed by Madeline Hunter (Hunter, 1985) including a suggested script to establish anticipatory set, to prepare or "center" the students in terms of focusing their thoughts on the intended learning. The input or content and method of delivery of each lesson is then provided, followed by checks for understanding of the content and guided practice of the subject matter and skills which have been presented. This allows the instructor the opportunity to determine which areas of the content are well understood and those which may need to be retaught.

When possible, commercially available methods and materials were suggested to go along with the lessons. The developers were unable to find commercially prepared materials for the newer technology therefore many of the transparencies and color slides were produced as a part of the project. The scripted approach provides the less experienced instructor with the structure and script for delivering the lessons along with prompts on when to use tansparencies and/or other media materials. Other more experienced users of the materials could utilize the validated competencies and content as they desired. Lesson scripts can be utilized as resources that could be added to or utilized in parts.

The course materials were developed and edited to the current draft copy in a short period of time using an Apple™ Macintosh Plus™[1] computer and specialized software including Microsoft™[2] Works word processor, MORE™ [3] idea processor and PowerPoint™ [4] overhead transparency maker. The materials were printed on an Apple™ Laserwriter Plus printer which produces near "type-set quality." The use of the microcomputer to develop the materials significantly reduced the amount of time spent in the normal secretarial chores inherent in such a production and allowed the authors more time to devote to the "deeper structures" of the development process. The entire document was stored on a small 3.5 inch disk. Editing, spelling checking and other functions including grade level readability scaling were accomplished with ease using the computerized approach. Of particular interest was the use of new software by for the Apple™ Macintosh by the Forethought Company (Powersoft™) to design and develop high quality transparencies along with optional student handouts that contain "miniatures" of the transparencies (See example in Appendix A.).

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[1] Macintosh is a trademark of Macintosh Laboratory, Inc. and is Licensed to Apple Computer, Inc.

[2] Microsoft is a registered trademark of Microsoft Inc.

[3] More is a registered trademark of Living Videotext, Inc.

[4] Powerpoint is a registered trademark of Forethought, Inc.

The course is designed to be presented in fifty minute lessons and can be presented over the course of a semester or in several day-long workshop sessions. Each lesson suggests supervised laboratory activites that feature "hands on" experiences for the students. In many lessons, unsupervised student "projects" are also suggested. As a part of the developmental process, Wheeler and Eisenbise pilot tested a portion of the course in a day-long workshop with eight special education paraprofessionals from the Colby service center. The pre and post test data from this pilot test show dramatic gains in the attitude, knowledge and skills of these paraprofessionals. The project will be supporting actual field testing of the course at several community colleges this academic year. It is important to test the merit of the materials when being used by faculty other than developers and in a delivery model other than a day-long workshop format. The lab sessions are considered to be vital to the successfully implementation of the course.

Any materials that are suggested for use within the course, such as slides, transparencies, and clean copy for the handouts, are available from the project office.

Conclusion:

The processes used in the development of these materials were not **in themselves** innovative. They merely represent "best practices" in applied research and the prudent use of microcomputer technologies. The normal "presses" of time and lack of fiscal support often dictate that short cuts be used in putting together materials for these types of course development . The use of microcomputer technology and what is being called "Desktop publshing" software, can significantly reduce the amount of time and human effort need to draft, type, edit, re-type materials and develop overhead transparencies.

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Appendix

Lesson III
Knowledge

(1) Students will be able to explain:

Key areas on hardware that are vulnerable to Liquid spills

The reasons that liquids can damage electronic switches and circuits

Acceptable precautions for protection hardware from liquids

Reasons why liquids can damage disk media: Steps to be taken in case of a liquid spill.

Colby Community College

Lesson III
Skills

(1) Students will be able to demonstrate:

The ability to take appropriate action when liquid is spilled on equipment

The ability to take appropriate action when liquid is spilled on disk media

Colby Community College

Lesson III
Attitudes

(1) Students will develop a positive attitude toward:

The precautions necessary to provide reasonable protection against liquid spills

Colby Community College

Lesson III
Knowledge

(1) Students will be able to explain:

The negative effects of magnetic fields on disk media

And identify the most common sources of magnetic fields in a classroom

Colby Community College

Lesson III
Skills

(1) Students will be able to demonstrate:

Precautions to take in a classroom to reduce damage of magnetic fields

Colby Community College

Lesson III c
Knowledge

a) Students will be able to explain:

- (1) Reasons for precautions in handling software/diskettes
- (2) The importance of making Backups.
- (3) Precautions necessary in software storage - (Integrate above knowledge)

Colby Community College

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THE RURAL INCENTIVE: Obligations and Opportunities

THE RURAL INCENTIVE

Part One: An Introduction to the Rural Mind in Rural America

With the arrival of the '80's a new trend in population shift toward rural suburban regions has occurred. It is estimated that 1/3 of our population now resides in rural areas. This shift has created a blend of the old and the new. And will have a tremendous impact on the future of rural schools. (Lick, 1983) Many beginning teachers start their teaching careers in rural schools with some of the more than 14 million students dispersed among over 10 thousand independent rural school districts. This presentation is designed to help them and other educators, think more about rural schools: What are they? Where are they? And what does it mean to us as educators?

Rural schools can be found in every state of the nation: In the Adirondack mountains of New York, Appalachia, the plains of the Midwest, ranches in Montana, the wine country of California, islands of Hawaii and villages of Alaska, one commonality they all share is their isolation . . . from shopping centers, complete medical facilities, museums, zoos, etc.

Many rural schools are plagued with lack of support services (special education, music, art, physical education), poor facilities and resources, such as buildings in need of repair, lack of desks, few, if any, computers, dictionaries, and out dated maps, globes, etc.

Teachers, must take many of these difficulites into consideration as well as low salaries, little room for career advancement, few opportunities for professional development, and often living in isolated areas or commuting miles to work. Teachers in rural schools are often held highly accountable outside as well as inside the classroom, often serving as coaches, or sponsors of school-community related events. The teacher is expected to reinforce community standards requiring educators to be uniquely aware of the values and mores of the community. So, why teach in rural areas?

The answers vary for many colleagues in the field. Some enjoy the children and the attitude they bring toward learning, some want to return to their hometown or similar areas, some enjoy the challenge, some just want a job, but in nearly all cases, teachers speak of the kinship that exists among teachers, children and community.

Robert Coles describes,

> ". . . something of a spirit: a closeness to the land, a familiarity with it, and despite the suffering and sacrifice and rage and hurt and pain, a constant regard for that land, an attachment to that land, a kind of love." (Coles, 1971:23)

This spirit evidences itself throughout rural America as people maintain tradition and cultural values through that love of land. It is here that the rural paradox emerges.

Part Two: The Rural Paradox

The paradox goes beyond the individual to all aspects of the community including the school. One prevalent concern for rural teachers is: geographical isolation versus community traditions. Sometimes people living in isolated areas are criticized as inbred and stagnant. Their lack of experience with diverse situations leads to mistrust of outsiders and reluctance to change. This is often evidenced by very traditional uses of funds. You are more likely to find traditional textbooks than mechanized instructional aids in a rural school classroom.

Another way to look at the rural experience is that children grow up in an atmosphere steeped in community traditions. There is opportunity for an awareness of each one's roots and a sense of connectedness as neighbors and relatives must rely on each other. A real irony emerges when one realizes that it is both the community connectedness and their reluctance to change that has presented problems for school district consolidation proposals.

A second issue that rural teachers have to deal with is that everyone knows everyone. It can sometimes feel like a cloistered environment where everyone monitors the patterns of pain and joy in the lives of other community members. Thus a teacher's altercation with a naughty child is not always a one-to-one confrontation. The school secretary may be the child's next door neighbor; a cafeteria cook may be the child's aunt; and her mother or father may be the school bus driver. A teacher's life in, as well as outside, the school day is an open book. This makes it necessary for us to acknowledge that we are all in this together--nobody's existence is in isolation from the rest of us.

The advantage of the rural cloister is a beautiful acceptance of the insider's struggle and celebration of life. Someone who belongs to the community is accepted as part of the community: strengths, weaknesses, talents, and limitations are what make you you and one of us. For example, in one rural community in West Virginia, a second grader is able to be part of the school community although she is totally blind. There is no question of her part and contribution to the school day. Teachers and students alike see her as a lesson in humility, generosity, warmth, and beauty.

Nonetheless, the expense of appropriate tutorial services is costly in a school system where funds are scarce and discretionary monies nil.

A third paradox we have noticed about many of the rural shcools we have visited and worked in is limited financial resources. The cost of providing appropriate support services to small groups of students often puts a heavy responsibility on the classroom teacher, who must plan and teach art, music, physical education, and library skills, as well as the traditional basic subjects. And the same teacher may be expected to do all this with outdated materials and textbooks full of perspectives that have little relevance to the life experiences of rural children.

On the other hand, the best teachers view this situation as a challenge to their imaginations and a test of their resourcefulness. Students and teachers have opportunities to share the resources they do have in abundance--love of life, love of the land, and love for each other. The Outdoor Education Program at one school provides all sixth graders with some real-life skills and pleasures while back-packing with their teachers and the school principal. The commitment and dedication of these educators and children illustrate a fine way for school to connect with life.

We believe the teacher has a wonderful opportunity to set the tone between school and community; education and life. The tone set will either inhibit or enhance students' perceptions of themselves and their role in society. Appalachia is an appropriate illustration of the complex interaction between the rural school, the rural community, the rural teacher, and the rural child.

Part three: Community, Kinship and Communication: Teaching in Appalachia

Investigators frequently engage in research in rural Appalachia bringing with them preconceived notions about Appalachians that seldom get beyond the scenes of poverty and isolation. Therefore, attempts at reform never get beyond the obvious levels of cosmetic reconstruction. The conspicious consumers of our main-line culture have merely "added a coat of paint" to Appalachia to make us more like the urban ideal. Regardless of the sincerity or insincerity of many of these attempts, a look at the children in Appalachian schools today would reaffirm the impotency of so many educational and social reforms. The people of Appalachia today maintain many elements of the traditional mountain culture of previous generations. A daily newspaper from 1987 bears news releases which closely resemble stories from forty years ago. The union-corporation battle still rages, problems with economic stability and small town homicide are prominent and debates over consolidation still abound within the Appalachian region.

"What kind of people are the Appalachians which makes them so resilient to change?" is a question many reformers (bureaucrats) have asked? Some understanding of the basic characteristics of Appalachians may help us get beyond the outsiders image of Appalachia to the people who reside there. It can be considered a land of paradoxes which certainly adds a sense of complexity to any attempts at reform. Too often the approach to aid for the region has overlooked the lifestyle and values most inherent to the culture itself.

The schools in rural Appalachia have been weighed down throughout the twentieth century by urban norms that have little or nothing to do with Appalachian lives. We believe that these urban norms have led to the typical mountaineers indifference to schooling. Indeed school all too frequently has been indifferent to mountaineer needs.

Why?

As reported in the January 1987 issue of The Kappan, "societal efforts to modify children's attitudes through the schools succeed only if the values taught by the school are in line with the values held by the family." (Anastasiow, 1987)

What happens in the Appalachian school? What values are espoused in the school?

> Frank Adams reported Miles Horton's description of American schools as institutions offering what he calls a national education, . . . "an education not adaptable to a particular people or region, especially not to a region with the peculiarities of the Southern mountains . . . . everyone in the United States had to learn the same subjects in the same sequence or fall woefully behind 'he national average'. In his judgment, most of what passed for education did not grow out of the needs of the people who were being educated. Often education worked actively to the disadvantage of poor adults. Curricula and courses of study were imposed on people, both children and adults, with little sympathy for their individual or age differences or personal needs." (Adams, 1975:15)

Although Horton said this in the first quarter of the 20th century (circa 1925) here in the last quarter of the century curricula continues to be imposed with "little sympathy for ... individual .. or personal needs."

Our teachers typically go to teacher preparation programs designed to prepare urban teachers. Indeed, the "successful" student is often viewed as one who is able to "get out." Finding an upwardly mobile lifestyle in another part of the United States is considered more successful than returning to the hollows and hills of home.

What is the urban school model and why does it fit uncomfortably when imposed on an Appalachian child? and Appalachian teacher?

The urban school model assumes that bigger is better, more is better. Individualism is fostered through competitive modes that require many to lose in order for one to win. Productivity is best judged through external criteria for success; the group norm is more important than individual characteristics; sameness is equal; compliance is the best kind of cooperation. So we have schools today where consolidation (even if children must travel hours to and from school); State Educaton Department regulations requiring textbooks and workbooks rather than Science and Math materials; standardized test scores as the major if not sole criteria of our progress; grade level systems that don't account for fluctuating numbers of children; and labels (gifted, behavioral disordered) rather than focus on inclusive models of learning and human interaction. These all serve to create a we/they attitude and separateness rather than school as community center.

How do these values fit with the Appalachian spirit that Robert Coles described? Coles aptly describes this spirit as unyielding, hesitant, yet generous and affectionate. We see the activating or essential principles influencing the Appalachian mind to contain paradoxes that need to be examined by teachers wishing to nurture the minds and hearts of the children in our schools.

We need to help teachers to look once again at our criteria for success in American schools. Too often the definitions we are using in our schools are written in terms of the external social system with blatant neglect of individuals and their communities.

What are the criteria for success?

CRITERIA # ONE: independence -- The Appalachian tradition values a spirit of individualism. On the one hand this spirit is an essential part of the resourcefulness and tenacity of every mountaineer. On the other hand, this fierce independence flaunts the system represented by schools. The typical mainstream definition of individualism is an economic-social model that requires one's measure of self to be based on rising to the top within the system by the prescribed external criteria. The Appalachian's definition of rugged individualism defies the system rather than buys into it; this recalcitrance is often considered obstinate, a lack of respect for authority that shows an inability to "fit-in". Why should this strong sense of self be considered lack of respect? A teacher training program that served our people would teach educators how to work with this strong sense of self rather than deny it or interpret it as not caring. Why not value a demeanor that clearly resists an authority system that neglects inner criteria of individual strength, and defines the unbeholden as shiftless?

CRITERIA # TWO RESOURCEFULNESS

In a society where the measure of profitable focuses exclusively on dollars and material possessions, a mountaineers productivity is often invisible. The typical mainstream definition of success is, more is better, . . . "purchasing power not self-sufficiency is the standard for success". . . . (Weller, 1965)

Too often, urban prepared teachers look at the home environment of their students starting on the outside and never reach the inner core of their home lives. They use the external criteria of looks, cleanliness, dress, time spent on outward appearances of order, as suitable criteria for judging their students capacity for book learning. This standard seems to work, as the children who come to school with the fewest material assets usually leave with the fewest academic accoutrements.

We think the potential these children have for engaging in academics is hindered by such assumptions. Why not look at the strength inherent in a resourcefulness that espouses make do, do without; a frugality that says don't use more than you need; a sense of self that doesn't come from the size of your automobile, or how manicured your lawn is.

CRITERIA # THREE: UPWARD MOBILITY

Unlike the majority of mainstream America, most Appalachians have a history of six, seven, or more generations in the hills. A tradition of close identification with the land, the county, and the region, contrasts sharply with the typical mobile American whose family has been in this country for less than a century and in their state for a generation or less.

Teachers prepared with the urban model often view families with an attitude of "this is how we've always done," as backward. The frustration that arises when trying to introduce new ways leads to teachers assuming "They don't want to learn. "We believe a school milieu that values traditions and sees local participation in life and politics as a fulfilling human function could do much to make school relevant for Appalachian children.

CONCLUSION

The urban prepared teacher judges her success by students who "fit in" to urban models of authority systems; students who are clean and dressed neatly; students who "get out" and climb the paths of a dream that denies their heritage.

We think teachers taught to value their students more will value themselves more. By viewing learning and life through the eyes of an Appalachian child, the teacher will gain additional criteria for evaluating and valuing their own work and worth. Teachers may even begin to question the appropriateness of "packaged" curricula, urbanized texts and urban norms. Through this questioning, teacher educators may begin to recognize issues particular to the Appalachian region and redefine our teacher education programs. These programs must empower pre-service teachers to value our differences as unique individuals, to think critically and to develop internal as well as external criteria to determine the purpose of our lives. The challenge is directed to Appalachian rural teachers to establish relationships between school activities and the child's life outside of school.

It is evident that successful Appalachian teachers are a unique breed of educators. "What are the qualities necessary to meet the challenge for teaching Appalachian children?" The question is a personal one for which you must take into consideration a variety of criteria. We have found that the most successful Appalachian teachers usually:

1. live in or near the community in which they teach or have strong community ties. (Cross and Williams, 1985; Lewis and Edington, 1983)
2. have a love of the land. (Cross and William, 1985; Gardner and Edington, 1982)
3. have multiple certification specializations, i.e. elementary special education and language arts; or elementary math and social studies. (Massey and Crosby (1983)
4. have skills in content integration (Massey and Crosby, 1983)
5. are aware of shopping and medical disadvantages. (Lewis and Edidngton, 1983)
6. develop self-sufficiency and (Massey and Crosby, 1983; Cross and Williams, 1985; Gardner and Edington, 1982)
7. can rely on heavy doses of imagination and resourcefulness rather than dollars in providing challenging yet relevant instruction to our nation's Appalachian children. (Cross and Williams, 1985; Gardner and Edington, 1982)

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[1] (The "discovery" occurred in the 1890's and 1920's due to industrialization and the 1960's brought the "War on Poverty."

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CRISP -- Chestnut Ridge Independent Study Program

ABSTRACT

The CRISP presentation will be a three part overview of the Chestnut Ridge Independent Study Program which operates out of a multiuser telecommunications computer system based in a small rural school district nestled in the beautiful hills of south-central Pennsylvania.

CRISP enables Chestnut Ridge, and several surrounding school districts: to support advanced level vocational courses such as accounting II; to offer special courses in the gifted area; to revitalize orphan courses such as Latin; and to provide classes in certification areas that are becoming increasingly hard to fill such as physics and calculus. All this is accomplished in a cost effective manner that utilizes creative teachers from several schools, either during free time or after school. In addition, the CRISP system is compatible with all popular brands of computers with only the purchase of a modem.

Part one will be a half hour narrated slide show that will discuss the history, present activities and future plans of this innovative program that uses word processors to create interactive, independent, study lessons and a multiuser computer to provide remote services to course participants through telecommunications. The CRISP system transmits and translates lessons to different computer

brands. It also provides communications between remote students and teachers through electronic mail and interactive electronic bulletin boards via a toll free number.

The second part of the lecture/demonstration will guide participants through the use of the CRISP system much the same as any participating student or teacher does on a regular basis when he uses the CRISP curriculum. Simulated contact with the host computer at Chestnut Ridge will be established; lessons will be downloaded; and the "students" will browse through a sample lesson. The conference "student" will then assume the role of remote instructor. He will log into the simulated CRISP system to monitor student progress, and provide new material for the elctronic connected classroom.

The last half hour will be a question and answer session designed to show the conference attendents how a system like CRISP can be used to solve some of the unique problems that affect the small rural school.

In summary our presentation will demonstrate a cost-effective means of solving some serious curriculum problems that affect the small and rural schools of America.

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1987

11:25 - 11:55 AM

Robert Miller, III
Doctoral Candidate
National College of Education
2840 Sheridan Road
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Robert Clark
Professor
National College of Education
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Appalachian Children's Intelligence Compared to a National Sample on the K-ABC

Appalachian Children's Intelligence Compared to a National Sample on the K-ABC

National College of Education
School Psychology Department
Evanston, IL 60201-1796

Many times the children in Appalachia are overlooked in the national standardization of cognitive ability tests. This region of the country is one of the poorest and most geographically remote. As a result children from Appalachia are labeled as less cognitively adroit than their counterparts in almost any other region of the United States. This is an assumption that has only recently been challenged.

This presentation will report data from a project designed to compare the scores of children of Appalachia with those of the standardization group of the Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC). This test was released in 1983 and was developed based on the 1980 census. The authors made efforts to stratify the standardization such that all representative groups were included in the sample. It was one of the few instruments to include minority group members and special education children in proportion to their numbers in the general population. However, there were no children from the region of Appalacia bounded by Pennsylvania in the north, through West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee.

Over three hundred children from this region of the country were tested with the K-ABC. The children were sampled in proportion to the ethnicity, residence, speical education classification and community size. These data were analyzed and compared to those data reported in the manual for the K-ABC. It was found that there were no significant differences for the mean scores in all comparisons between the Appalachian sample and the norm group. Factor analytic procedures were conducted and these scores will be reported in the presentation.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A Proposal for a Collaborative Effort Involving Two Rural School Systems and a University to Address Problems of Teacher Recruitment and Retention

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Paper presented at the
Annual Conference of the National
Rural and Small Schools Consortium.
October, 1987.

The country youth is entitled to just as thorough a preparation for thoughtful and intelligent membership in the body politic as is the city youth. The state, if it is wise, will not discriminate in favor of the one as against the other; but will adjust its bounties in a manner equitable to the needs of both. (p.2)

Harold W. Foght (1912)
The American Rural School

In the best of times, teacher recruitment and retention are yearly concerns in rural and small school systems. Louisiana is experiencing the worst of times, and teacher labor market problems are exacerbated in rural parishes dependent on slumping oil prices and a sluggish farm economy. As long as there are students, however, schools are expected to identify, recruit, select, and retain certified teachers regardless of existing economic conditions, constitutional tax base, housing conditions, opportunities for spouse employment, recreational opportunities, or community isolation.

Campbell (1986) notes "...most teacher training institutions are located in or near the population centers of any given state". Berry (1984), in describing teacher mobility patterns in the southeast, indicates the draw of the college community in decisions of where to teach and live. Campbell (1986) further notes that,

> It follows quite naturally, therefore, that the curriculum designs and content of teacher education departments and colleges have focused primarily, if not exclusively on the needs of urban and suburban communities.
>
> (p. 107)

Hull (1986), adds another dimension to this with his consideration of change in rural areas. He describes the position of Fullan (1982) who notes the importance of "access to information" (Hull, p. 23). Fullan (p. 44) believes:

> Urban school districts and large-size school districts enjoy favorable conditions (which) rural and small-size school districts do not.
>
> (Hull, p. 23)

We have a picture, then, of colleges as urban institutions serving the needs of urban and large school districts. College curriculums and content are designed primarily for urban population. Additionally, the isolation of rural and small schools hamper access to universities and their expertise needed for change and innovation.

In this paper, we propose a collaborative effort intended to address the issues which are inherent in the relationship. between rural, small schools and urban universities raised earlier. First, we describe two rural Louisiana parishes. Next, we propose research based in the characteristics of these parishes. Finally, we propose the development of policies which are based in the salient characteristics of these parishes and which are to identify, recruit, select, attract, and retain teachers of quality not presently choosing to work in rural parishes.

Description

Louisiana leads the nations in virtually all the 'bad' statistics related to education and youth: high dropout rate, low teacher salary, high illiteracy rate, low graduation rate, high rate of teen-age parents, high infant mortality rate, high rate of illegitimate births. Many of the best and the brightest high school graduates are attending out of state colleges and many college graduates are leaving the state for employment.

The U.S. average education level is about 12.1, while Louisiana's is 10.8 The U.S. median family income is some $27,000 and in Louisiana it is just over 15,000. Louisiana has 66 school systems, one for each of its 64 parishes and two city systems, with a mean of nearly 12,000 students. Of these 66 systems, only 19 are above this average. That is, 70% of the school systems in Louisiana have fewer students than the state average. The median school system has about 6400 students. Louisiana, then, is a state with many rural, small schools.

Bonn and Boeuff Parishes (pseudonyms) are among the smaller school systems in the state. Boeuff, with just over 1600 students, is the smallest and Bonn, with just over 3500, is about the 15th smallest. Both systems have 6 schools. Boeuff has 115 teachers and Bonn about 190. The education level for each parish is 10.1, .7 below the state level and some two years below the U.S. average. The median family income for each is around $10,500, nearly $5,000 below the state median and almost $12,000 below the U.S. median. Of the 66 parishes, Boeuff ranks 49th in per capita income and Bonn ranks 63rd. In transportation costs, Boeuff has the highest per student in the state and Bonn is in the top 1/3. The state average for the local portion of financial support is around 35%. Both Bonn and Beouff average around 15-18%, roughly 1/2 the state average. Statewide, roughly 33% of all teachers have 15 or more years experience; Bonn has 45% and Boeuff has 47%. That is, while 1/3 of all Louisiana teachers have 15 or more years of experience, nearly 1/2 of all Bonn and Boeuff teachers are this experienced.

While Bonn and Boeuff share a number of statistical similarities, they are different in a number of ways. Bonn has a major highway running through it and enjoys the associated spin off small businesses - truck stop, gas stations, fast-food restaurants. While this may not seem important, it is important to note Boeuff Parish has no major highways, no 4-lane roads, and no fast food restaurants. The largest town in Bonn Parish has about 10,000 people and is located nearly 20 miles from a metropolitan area of some 40,000. In years past, Bonn teacher salaries were higher than those of the metropolitan area and consequently drew teachers from there. Boeuff has no large towns and has drawn few certified teachers from the outside.

The Bonn economy has a number of small businesses catering to the highway traffic and to those who live in Bonn and work in the neighboring metropolitan area. Though much of the parish is in farm land and is agriculturally dependent, there are other employment opportunities. Boeuff, on the other hand, is virtually totally agriculturally dependent. Though the agricultural picture seems improved for the fall, many farms are bankrupt and idle, and a number are owned by the federal land bank. The associated agri-businesses which have survived so far, are also working at a reduced capacity. When the state of Louisiana reduced its portion of public school support through a cut in the minimum foundation program last spring, small, rural systems contributing near their ability to raise tax monies saw their local portion of support rise while there were fewer businesses to tax. That is, as the total amount of school funds were reduced, fewer businesses paid more taxes to keep their dollar amount of taxes constant. The net effect is that Boeuff Parish now has fewer businesses to tax at a time it needs to raise its portion of support.

Though Bonn Parish has a limited number of apartments, there are places available for teachers to rent. And, as indicated above, teachers desiring to do so may choose to live in a metropolitan area and commute some 40 miles per day. Boeuff Parish, on the other hand, has no apartments and few if any, middle class-type homes available for rent.

Both parishes are rich in natural recreational opportunities. Water sports, fishing, hunting, hiking, camping, boating, and canoeing are abundant in both parishes. Many locals who leave for economic opportunities return because of family and the natural resources.

Boeuff and Bonn Parishes share many characteristics, but are sufficiently different to warrant differing policies, or adaptation of programs relative to the teacher labor market. The determination of these policies and programs, however, are dependent on collaborative efforts between the parishes and with the university.

Collaborative Efforts

Historically, the relationship between school systems and universities has not been one of close, collaborative efforts. Cohen and Lindblom (1980) note the problems in "conclusiveness and authoritativeness" (p. 127) when "disinterested social science research" and the "experience of practitioners" are combined (p. 126). Naisbet's Megatrends (1982) with its descriptions of "top-down" vs. "bottom-up", is a classic statement of those who perceive of themselves as possessing knowledge and skills sufficient to provide solutions to those experiencing the problems.

Rural schools, which have never been able to offer programs equal to those of urban areas (Fonville, 1984), are now faced with the demand to provide quality programs (Odden, 1986). Hare (1986) noted this double burden when he stated: "Those school systems which could never afford equity funding are now expected to fund excellence" (p. 11).

It is our belief that workable policies and programs are based in salient, contextural variables. That is, before reasonable, workable programs are developed or implemented, an understanding of critical, local variables is required (Berry, 1984). Such programs, then, are developed specifically to fit the needs of those for whom these programs are intended. Site-based, situation-specific programs seem to us to be the only way to address those needs of small, rural schools. Just as the characteristics of Bonn and Boeuff Parishes are different, programs developed for these parishes will also be different.

Collaborative efforts, then, require universities to offer assistance to local schools in the identification of local characteristics and local variables, the determination of local need and local ability, and the development of reasonable and workable local programs. This suggests a change in the relationship of school systems and universities, but it is a change required for collaborative efforts.

Both Bonn and Boeuff Parishes are in the service area of Northeast Louisiana University. NLU is a state supported institution of higher education operated under the Board of Trustees for State Colleges and Universities. The Board assigned its constituent institutions specific parishes and charged them with the responsibility of addressing the needs of these parishes.

Service is a major component of the mission of The College of Education at NLU. Though colleges and universities in Louisiana have faced cuts more severe than those suffered by the public schools, we continue to offer programs based in the need of our parishes. Education faculty assignments include service components to area schools. A major element of this service is applied research designed to produce workable programs and policies.

Just as workable programs for particular rural school systems are based in the characteristics of those rural schools, an analysis of the employment patterns of rural teachers must be based in the employment patterns of those particular rural teachers. That is, to determine how and why the teachers of Bonn and Boeuff Parishes came to teach there, one must ask them how and why they came to teach in Bonn or Boeuff Parish. Additionally, those who have taught and left possess information needed to retain those attracted to teach. Those who choose not to teach in these parishes hold part of the answer to problems of recruitment.

Collaborative efforts to address issues of the teacher labor market require research into the actual conditions of the teacher labor market in each parish. Teachers will fall into three major categories-those presently teaching, those who had taught but left (the system or teaching), and those who chose not to teach in Bonn or Boeuff Parishes.

For policies to identify, recruit, select, and retain teachers of quality not choosing to work in rural parishes to be effective, they must be initiated by local systems and based in the charactistics of these systems. Universities are to assist local systems in these efforts. This is the essence of true collaborative efforts.

Policies and Programs

Based on the characteristics inherent in each parish, we propose the development of policies to assist them in the identification, recruitment, selection, and retention of teachers not presently choosing to locate in their system. Additionally, we propose policies to upgrade the certification and skills of the teachers presently working in the systems.

The problem of attracting quality teachers to work in rural and small schools is acute. However, it is our belief that certain activities can assist the described systems in this endeavor. As with many rural school systems, recruiting materials can be improved. Both systems could receive assistance from the university in the development of high quality multi-media recruitment packages which would present their systems and communities in the most favorable light.

Furthermore, recruiters in both systems could receive training from university experts in sound recruiting techniques and be assisted in recruiting day activities at regional universities.

A common problem in attracting teachers to a rural school system is that there are few employment possibilities for their spouses-a great hinderance in a period when both spouses working is the rule rather than the exception. The university could, therefore, assist school systems in convincing local businesses that this problem exists and can be related to the quality of education in the community. Additionally, university representatives could point out to local businessmen that teachers might be attracted to the community with an assurance of employment during periods when school is not in session (summer, Christmas, etc.). Local businessmen must be made to see the relationship between good educational programs and a healthy business climate. Also, they must understand that generally the more money an individual earns in a community, the more money they spend in that community.

Boeuff Parish has a problem which, to be addressed, would require support from the business community. Unlike Bonn Parish, Boeuff has no apartment buildings and few houses available for rent. This situation requires an incoming teacher to either commute from another community or make the sizable financial investment of buying a home. The university could assist school personnel in convincing local investors of the need for rental housing with modest rents.

Another problem related to attraction which confronts both systems is the difficulty in urging natives of a rural area to consider teaching as a viable employment option. Since income levels are generally low in rural areas, money is sometimes unavailable to many individuals for college instruction. The university could assist the local systems in setting up scholarship programs which identify individuals deemed as having the. qualifications necessary for success as a teacher; pay for tuition, books, and incidental fees; and require a teaching commitment for a specified time period. Along these lines, university personnel could serve as resource persons for the organization and implementation of high school groups within the parish systems which are designed to familiarize students with education as a career (Future Teachers of America, etc.).

An additional problem confronting both school systems described is the lack of communication between the systems and the persons wishing to secure employment. The university could establish a clearinghouse which would identify individuals within and outside of the community which might desire to teach in the systems. Additionally, the university could provide prospective teachers with information about teaching position availability in the systems.

The retention of teachers in rural school systems poses additional problems. It is one thing to secure teachers to work in rural schools - it is quite another to keep them. The retention of teachers strongly relates to continuity of instruction and unity of direction. Therefore, this must be a major thrust of rural school systems. Proposals discussed relative to retention often serve a dual purpose in that they may also be strong recruiting tools. Any discussion of teacher retention eventually will suggest the adding of teacher benefits. Clearly such benefits are strongly related to teacher retention. Such benefits can come in the form of real money or non-monetary benefits. Monetary benefits typically deal with alterations in existing salary schedules. The state salary schedule in Louisiana provides for pay increments up to 12 years of teaching experience. Rural parishes could provide increments for additional years of service, if the local tax base could support such an effort.

While monetary inducements can aid in the retention of teachers, non-monetary ones are often more affordable. Teachers often prefer such inducements as they are non-taxable. Superior health insurance coverage could be provided to teachers through cooperative agreements with other school systems. Additionally, community members with certain skills could supply teachers with their services at reduced rates (physicians, dentists, etc.). Community volunteers could assist schools in reducing some of teachers' burdensome tasks (collecting lunch money, clerical work, etc.) and could be used to provide release time (planning periods, etc.) to teachers.

Too often school systems ignore the fact that many teachers entered the profession because of a love of teaching and many leave over non-teaching aspects. Therefore, assistance which helps the teacher do a better job instructionally can be utilized to retain teachers. Instructional budgets can be generous enough to provide teachers with materials and equipment to better do their job and provide monies for teachers to attend professional workshops to upgrade their skills.

In recent years the demand for day care services has increased greatly. School systems could provide day care centers at schools throughout the system for the care of teachers' children. Such centers could be partly staffed by community volunteers.

Both Bonn Parish and Boeuff Parish are blessed with outstanding teachers. However, some teachers are uncertified or teaching out of their primary area of certification. Since this is the case, efforts must be made to ensure that the students in the parishes are being instructed by teachers certified in the areas in which they teach.

One possibility would be through monetary incentive. The school systems could provide a healthy increment for certified teachers. This could stimulate non-certified teachers to acquire certification.

Another means of addressing this problem could come in the form of a developmental increment. In essence, this increment could come in the form of payment for tuition and books for courses toward the certification of non-certified teachers.

Still another manner of assisting non-certified teachers in becoming certified would be to offer university courses in local schools. NLU has the expertise to carry out such a program. However, for such a program to be successful, compensation for university professors teaching such courses would be required.

Due to the great distance that both school systems are from the campus, telecourses are a posibility.

Clearly, many additional policy proposals could be forwarded to assist Bonn and Boeuff Parishes in improving their respective programs. Those previously alluded to are merely a sampling. It is our belief that schools are only as good as the quality of the teachers employed in them. Therefore, efforts at school improvement must emphasize this area. It is also our belief that meaningful change and innovation in rural and small schools can only be accomplished through collaborative efforts between area universities and school systems. As opposed to the quick-fix visiting consultant, area persons have deeper insight into the problems plaguing individual rural and small schools, are accessible when schools need assistance, and can continually monitor and fine tune programs established through their guidance. Collaborative effort is a commitment of time, effort, and interest.

Appendix

Comparison of Important Variables Involving Bonn and Boeuff Parishes

	Bonn	Boeuff	LA	US
Education Level	10.1	10.1	10.8	12.1
Median Family Income	$10,679	$10,477	$15,227	$27,000
Number of Schools	6	6		
Students	3547	1604	11,920 (median)	
Teachers	192	115		

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HE WHO ARGUES ECONOMIES OF SCALE SHOULD MAKE CERTAIN HE DOES NOT HAVE LARGE - SCALE CONCEPTUAL PROBLEMS!

Presented to the National Rural
and Small Schools
Consortium
October 13-16, 1987

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INTRODUCTION

The principle of Economies of Scale presumes that the fixed costs per unit decreases as the number of units increases (and conversely). Therefore, smaller schools and school districts should experience more acute problems of scale than do larger, consolidated school units. For example, consider the financial impact when a superintendent's salary in a large school district (Pittsburgh Public Schools, 40,000 students) is compared on a per-unit basis to that in a nearby suburb (Upper St. Clair School District, suburban Pittsburgh area, 3,700 students). The salary for each of these chief school administrators was $70,000 during the 1985-86 school year. On a per-unit basis, this is equivalent to $1.75 per urban pupil and $19.00 per suburban student. The superintendent's salary represents a much larger share of the school budget in the smaller school district. This implies that a proportionately smaller share of the budget remains available for other expenses in the Upper St. Clair School District (McClure, 1985). Consequently, it is often suggested that a broader service mix of pupil personnel services, extra-curricular services and elective subject-area course offerings are available in larger school units (Conant, 1959).

This paper will review how proponents of school mergers and reorganization often point to the economies of scale in order to promote the so-called advantageous expansion away from small schools. Their strategies range from issuing studies to creating financial incentives for growth in school size (Monk and Haller, 1986). On the other hand, small school advocates will be cited who are equally (if not more) vociferous in preserving their systems, promoting the satisfaction of smallness over the "economies of scale." Thus, the small school lobby's effort to dismiss, deflect and refute the theorized economies of larger units is an integral part of this study. One argument places small schools as the source of many so-called modern educational innovations, e.g.:

Nongraded classrooms
Flexible scheduling
Individualized instruction
Independent study
Peer teaching/tutoring
Team teaching
Continuous progress
Mastery learning
The school as a "family"
Student activities
Parent-teacher conferences and committees

(Beckner, 1983; Barker, 1986)
Other arguments against merger or consolidation into larger schools or school districts may take the form of "Innovation." The use of satellite classes, shared staff and computer simulations have been cited as examples of how Technology may supplant the need for largeness (NEA Today, 1986). Do small schools take advantage of

these opportunities? The evidence suggests that small schools and school districts do not tend to share staff nor are classes rescheduled in order to use interactive video (Monk and Haller, 1986).

What appears to be the most convincing counterargument to the economies of scale is the educator's ability to redefine what constitutes an effective school. While larger units describe their accomplishments with indicators of external efficiency, smaller units attribute successes to factors such as: closer community controls; closer ties of citizens to finance; more productive relationships among students, teachers, administrators and the community; as well as the increased proportions of students who participate extra-curricular activities (Barker and Gump, 1964).

To some of the major actors, the question is one of scale and control. Tracing the historical roots of the American move from small, rural schools and systems, Alan J. DeYoung (DeYoung, 1987) describes the focus of this debate:

> ...perhaps the major battle line in the rural school literature still forms around community control versus appropriate school size. Proponents of school consolidation and centralization have argued that many rural communities are too poor and/or too small to give their children adequate education. Supporters of local control argue that community life depends on the local school as a community resource, and with the proper funding formulas and decentralization, can be made viable for both community and for individual academic achievement. (p.135)

On the other hand, others are more concerned with effectiveness than with control. The comparison of size and effectiveness presents an interesting dilemma to any researcher. Both large and small schools appear to be effective because each has determined its own criteria of what is important to society. Urbanites can be expected to resist paying for small school inefficiencies while suburban and rural schools will decry the impersonal climate, typical of larger schools, as well as their inherent lack of discipline and achievement (Barker, 1986). Since the question of cross-unit comparisons are subject to this lack of consensus on effectiveness, the question will remain open until a common conceptual base is shared.

OPTIMAL SIZES AND UNITS OF ANALYSIS

What is the optimal size for a school or a school district? Which is the appropriate unit of analysis for study? On the latter, there is solid agreement; the school building is the proper target for most research considerations. School district-wide comparisons frequent the literature simply because aggregate data is readily available and individual school building data is not

(Riew, 1986; Beckner, 1983;Rosenfeld, 1981 as cited in DeYoung, 1986; Plank, 1987). The former question, of optimal size, eludes such a neat consensus. Beckner's study for Phi Delta Kappa recommends that elementary school buildings be constructed so as to house 300 to 600 students, but notes that optimal size will vary due to the significant effect of variables other than size alone (Beckner, 1983). A summary of several additional studies (DeFigio, 1986) suggests that the range in effective size is larger, i.e.:

	Minimum Size	Maximum Size
Elementary School	195	720
Middle School	195	600
Junior High School	90	1500
Senior High School	100	1600

There is an analogous reporting of optimal school district size. Jones suggests the greatest efficiency occurs in districts of 2,500 students (Jones, 1985). Others perceive the problem is acute only when the district is very small. A report to the New York State Legislature (Monk and Haller, 1986) suggests problems arise when a district has fewer than 400 students in grades 9-12 and become "especially serious in systems with high schools that serve fewer than 100 students." (p. 2) The incidence of very small size was also reported by Bruce Barker (Barker, 1983; Barker and Muse, 1983). 1,414 public school districts of 300 students or less were known to exist in the United States at the time of their study; these represented 9.1% of the total 15,601 school districts but only 0.65% of the total students nationwide. Fourteen (of 50) states reported no school districts as small as 300 students.

It is not unusual for small school advocates to report the extreme changes in the number of small schools and school districts in the past three or four decades. Consider the following citation from the Phi Delta Kappa report (Beckner, 1983):

> The number of public school districts in the United States decreased from 128,000 to 16,960 between 1930 and 1972. In the same time period:
>
> The number of one-room elementary schools fell from 149,000 to 1,475.
>
> The number of traditional four-year high schools typical of rural and small school districts was cut in half.
>
> Secondary enrollments trippled. (p. 11)

It is clear that the number of school districts and the number of school buildings in the United States has been historically decreasing. But what of more recent trends? The National Center for Education Statistics reported the following changes between the 1970-71 and the 1982-83 school terms (Plisko and Stern, 1985):

	1970-71	1982-83
Enrollment (1000's)	45,390	40,107
Number of schools	90,540	84,740

Average enrollment per school.	504	478

Distinct shifts in building utilization from K-6, 7-9 and 10-12 to K-5, 6-8 and 9-12 account for most of the change in average enrollment per school. In the same time period (1970-1983), the number of school districts decreased slightly from 15,929 to 15,840 (NCES, 1984). These recent data reveal that the number of school districts has decreased by less than one percent over these twelve years while, at the same time, enrollments and the number of school buildings have decreased in much higher proportions.

	Percent Change 1970-71 to 1982-83
Enrollment, total	-11.6
Number of schools	- 6.4
Average enrollment (per bldg)	- 5.2
Number of Districts	- 0.6

This analysis provides additional rationale for using school buildings, rather than school districts, as the unit of analysis in any study of recent school consolidation.

A SUMMARY OF OTHER STUDIES

That there are both advantages and disadvantages to small schools needs to be stated clearly and often (Monk and Haller, 1986).

> There is a very strong tendency for people to see either strengths or weaknesses when they look at small rural schools, not both. (p. 2)

Do specific programs experience higher mean achievement scores in large, consolidated school districts (compared to smaller units)? Fitzgerald and Hunt's study of cost-effectiveness predictors in the Chapter 1 programs of Minnesota public schools supports such a hypothesis (Fitzgerald and Hunt, 1985). They found that Chapter 1 projects in smaller school districts were less cost-effective than were the Chapter 1 projects in larger school entities. Fitzgerald and Hunt suggest that this finding implies that smaller Chapter 1 projects should be consolidated into larger school districts. This logic has been confirmed by others (Rosenfeld, 1981, as cited in DeYoung, 1987, p.2):

> Size, of couse, has implications for the number of programs and courses that can be supported in an area. It is also a major determinant of qualification for federal programs in federal data gathering efforts. Many federal programs are targeted at population centers so that they might reach the maximum number of recipients. Consequently, many rural schools, districts and counties are too small to be funded.

Thus, there is a federal trend which creates financial incentives for small schools to opt for consolidation.

Does scale control other distributions? The teacher perception of how instructional resources are allocated varies across the size distribution of Pennsylvania School Districts. Controlling for district wealth, a membership poll conducted by the Pennsylvania State Education Association (PSEA, 1985) revealed:

> That teachers believe middle-income school districts supply the most resources to small school districts, the fewest to large districts and a mid-range number to middle-sized school districts.
>
> That low-income school districts supply the most resources to medium-sized units, the fewest to small and intermediate values to large school districts.
>
> That, on the other hand, high-income districts are believed to allocate the most resources to small school units, nearly as many to large units, and clearly the least to the middle-sized.

Based on the perceptions found in this sample, it could be hypothesized that among high-income school districts in Pennsylvania, the most influential pro-education stakeholders are living in the smaller and (to some extent) the larger communities. Low income communities are perceived as most effective in securing instructional resources for middle-sized school districts. Middle-income school districts provide the largest number of resources in small communities and the fewest in large units. The role of size or scale in allocating Pennsylvania's instructional resources may be situational, trivial, or a function of a yet-unspecified variable.

In a regression analysis of fringe benefits enjoyed by the twenty-two bargaining entities of the Westmoreland (County of Pennsylvania) Education Council, no statistical relationship could be found between the quantity of fringe benefit programs for unionized teachers (i.e. medical, surgical, dental, prescription, vision, disability income, major medical and life insurance) and any indicator of school size (enrollments, number of teachers, attendance or population density). Apparently, scale is not valid in making predictions about fringe benefits in one of Pennsylvania's largest counties (Smith, 1985).

Class size, as opposed to school or school district scale has generally been the proxy of school quality advocated by teacher unions. In her April 24, 1987 testimony (PSEA, 1987b) before the Pennsylvania House Education Committee, Nancy M. Noonan, President of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, cited two studies linking class size to school achievement. A cluster analysis by the Education Research Service, Inc. found that smaller classes in grades K-3 are associated with increases in achievement by a factor of 5.5 to 1. More positive interactions and greater morale in both teachers and students were also associated with smaller class sizes. The second of the studies supportive of class size was completed in-house and suggests that school efficacy has direct implications for the question of scale. Size of the school district rated a poor fourth in a ranking of the variables used to "explain" (R-squared) when classes are small. Size of the district can only predict 0.6% of the class size variations, i.e. 6 in 1000 mean class size values can be related to school district size. Other variables and their explained variance percentages are:

Average Instructional Expense:	44.5%
District Wealth	28.9%
Local Tax Effort	4.6%

These findings support smaller schools to the extent small schools mirror small class sizes, a contention supported by Bruce Barker (Barker, 1986). The results also suggest that small, rural, large, and urban districts can maximize K-3 learning through intentional efforts to reduce class size.

What profile does the concept of economies of scale take on when applied in another statewide system? The Illinois State Board of Education considers relationships among high school size and three independent variables: program offering, student achievement and number of teacher planning periods. These are used statewide as the primary justification for high school consolidation (Thurston and Clauss, 1985). Their related implementing issues include: A deemphasis of the bureaucracy of the larger school, a need to consolidate across regions, an effort to maximize teacher qualtiy, the provision of transitional schedules for extracurricular activity participation and the need to support schools before and after consolidation. However, the real question is whether or not these three indicators of "economies" are sufficiently valid to order consolidation at all.

Benton and Gamble analyzed the consolidation of Duval County and the City of Jacksonville, Florida using a time-series, quasi-experimental design (Benton & Gamble, 1984). The effects of this 1969 merger were studied over time, from 1955 through 1981, and compared to another county/city (Hillsborough County/Tampa, Florida) which did not consolidate. This study controlled for federal and state aid, inflation, and inherent relationships (autocorrelations) between the dependent variables. While Benton and Gamble sought evidence of economies of scale in this county/city consolidation, no measurable impact on its property taxes, total expenditures or public safety expenditures was found. However, they suggest that there may remain sound reasons for consolidation:

1. Although the goal of reducing taxes and spending may be distorted by those in control, consolidation may still be "a viable and attractive form of government."
2. Consolidation may be used "to improve the quality of services" rather than reduce tax and spending burdens.

3. Partial consolidations, in which some functions remain independent, may "seem less radical" and therefore be "more politically acceptable."

Elchanan Cohn (Cohn, 1982) is quick to point out that schools cannot be measured by industrial output/input paradigms because school outputs are not directly sold in the marketplace. Therefore, the analogy between supply - demand and marginal products is incomplete.

While proponents profess profound belief that the economies of scale will drive schools towards consolidated service units and therefore, towards higher efficiency, others are quick to point out that the validity of this assumption is subject to further study. The economist is likely to embrace the ceteris paribus position; that all other things being equal, larger units are inherently more efficient. That "all other things" are unequal is strongly suggested by a series of recent studies.

Is perceived administrative effectiveness a function of size or wealth? In its May 1985 report to the Annual Convention, PSEA's Task Force on Educational Excellence (PSEA, 1985) reported among its findings, an apparently clear relationship between school size and perceived administrative effectiveness. In general, administrations were rated as more effective in larger school districts, although wealth, size and grade level all interacted with perceived administrative effectiveness. Elementary school teachers tended to rate their administrators as more effective than did secondary teachers. That elementary schools are usually smaller units than are secondary buildings supports an opposite hypothesis, although the report is silent on this issue altogether. In upper as well as lower-income districts, elementary and secondary teachers alike rated the administration of medium size school districts as the least effective. Teachers in middle income secondary schools perceived supervisors as more effective than did their elementary counterparts. Size or scale appears to have a checkered predictive relationship with beliefs about administrative effectiveness.

John Goodlad, in A PLACE CALLED SCHOOL, reported that most of the schools deemed effective in his study were small. He suggests it is more difficult to have a large, good school. On the whole, Goodlad suggests, the valid reasons for a large school are administrative whereas small schools are justified on an educational basis (Goodlad, 1984). There are several interesting validations of Goodlad's statement.

The North Carolina School Boards Association is actively opposing attempts by the state board of education to reduce the number of school districts to one per county (Sher, 1986). This would result in a reduction from 141 school districts to 100. North Carolina Association of Educators District Director Bobby Robinson suggests that the state department has a history of encouraging movement towards a county-based unit for school district organization. She has found relatively little concern among teachers on the question of educational benefits but expects considerable changes to result in the governance units of schools and related organizations. "Our union would be forced to change who elects its state leadership. We expect problems because the larger present districts will have more power at the ballot box than the smaller memberships." The implication is that the leaders of small districts will be swallowed up by the large unit directors (Robinson, 1986). Cathy Clark, of the Pennsylvania School Boards Association's research division, agrees. She believes that "For the most part, school merger discussions clearly produce more political concerns than educational questions (Clark, 1986)." Harry Bennedeto of the Pennsylvania Department of Education affirms that the commonwealth's historical 2000 school districts were not easily reduced to 501 units today. He believes that most reasonable people will agree on issues such as per unit costs and the related need to merge or share resources. The disagreement, he suggests, will occur whenever discussions become specific about who must merge with whom (Bennedeto, 1986). Pennsylvania House Representative V. J. Lescovitz commented on some of the political pitfalls in his sponsored legislation of "small school merger subsidy." He proposes that schools which voluntarily merge should be provided financial incentives. He would maintain the higher or highest state subsidy (aid ratio) previously paid to an independent district over the entire new merged system. This would eliminate the economic disadvantage to a wealthier district merging with a school system having a lower tax base (Lescovitz, 1986).

In a North Carolina study commissioned by the school boards association, HEAVY MEDDLE: A critique of the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction's plan to mandate school district mergers, five essential recommendations to thestate board of education are made (Sher, 1986):

> That there is no compelling state interest in mandating school and school district consolidation. Such decision (sic) can best be made on a case-by-case basis at the local level.
>
> That there is no solid evidence that forced school merger would result in schools or school systems that would be more economical, efficient or cost effective.
>
> That good schools and school districts come in all sizes (as do poor ones).
>
> That available data relative to student achievement and school effectiveness measures clearly make suspect the Department's (state) claim that county-level school districts with at least 5000 students are necessary before high quality education can occur.
>
> That a very legitimate and responsible "other side" to the often purported claim that bigger is better exists.

In New York, a two-year commissioned study was reported to the legislature, providing alternatives for the organization of rural school districts (Monk and Haller, 1986). This study systhesized the findings and recommendations of fourteen background papers compiled by a team headed by David H. Monk, Associate Professor and Emil J. Haller, Professor of Educational Administration at Cornell University. Based on their historial studies, analysis of statewide data as well as literature reviews, three general recommendations were presented:

> A. The State should make it possible for school districts to give unbiased consideration to traditional reorganization as a solution to the problem of small size.
>
> B. The State should provide additional organizational alternatives to small rural school districts.
>
> C. The State should be more tolerant of and accept greater financial responsibility for the cost of expanding educational opportunities in small rural schools. (pp 4-7)

The studies had revealed, and made further suggestions to allevate problems regarding:

A citizen's right to vote for reorganization on a disttrict-by-district basis.
Pre-election notice on the reorganized governance structure.
Financing the debts of previous districts after reorganization.
Reorganization decisions independent of district wealth.
Moving from financial incentives for reorganization to transitional subsidies related to actual costs.
Elimination of the use of a 1958 (revised) plan and its incentives for reorganization.
Assistance to school boards in hiring consultants.
Procedures to permit the partial reorganization of school districts.
Facilitation of shared services.
Support for telecommunications demonstration projects.
"Necessity aid" for the unavoidable costs of operating small school districts.
Expanding categorical aids, e.g. for the funding of better computer software.

Each of these studies suggests a need for more "solid information" about school reorganization. What recent quantitative studies of efficacy and size might better inform the decision to consolidate? A sophisticated statistical analyses of current school-level data provides limited support to the concept of scale economies. John Riew's regression analysis of school costs, under conditions of declining enrollment, provides empirical validity to his model of a cost function for unit school expenditures (Riew, 1986). The basic assumptions for this model are that the average cost per pupil is a function of the service quality, capacity utilized, price of inputs, environmental effects on inputs and some random disturbances. Using schools as the unit of analysis, Riew regressed data from the Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools. The results showed how the average operating expenditures per pupil were related to enrollments, utilization rate, teacher training, teacher experience, professional support staff and teacher aids. Among these, a U-shaped curve of cost versus school size explained 42 percent of the variation in mean cost per secondary pupil. Optimal secondary school size was determined to be 1,024; beyond this size, diseconomies of scale increased the average cost per student. Savings could be realized if enrollments were less than 1024. Both smaller and larger schools should move towards this number. For example, if a secondary building enrollment was increased from 600 to 800 students, the model predicted a savings of $197 per pupil. It is important to note how sensitive such results are to changes in any of the variables. A similar U-shaped cost curve was developed for elementary schools and 57 percent of the variance in cost per pupil was explained. This model provides three implications for policy:

> Scale economies are more significant at low levels (much less than minimum) of enrollment, because the slope changes most rapidly in this region.
>
> Scale diseconomies are much more significant at extremely high enrollment levels for the same reason.
>
> Scale economies are more significant for secondary schools than for elementary units. Furthermore, the optimal size over which economies of scale occur differ for elementary and secondary schools. This can be attributed to the need for more "specialized staff, other professional support personnel, and the more varied programs" of the secondary school.

In what other ways does the issue of size move or mirror the decision to reorganize? Does school district size predict the salaries of unionized teachers? In its July 1987 analysis of variance in Pennsylvania teacher salaries, the Pennsylvania State Education Association discovered that student enrollments could only explain 0.6% of the variance in salaries among the five hundred public school districts. The same study revealed that 69.3% of the variance was explained by the salaries of bargaining units within the same labor market. Years of teacher service, teacher education level and district wealth were all found to be stronger predictive variables for salary than proxies of school district size. The only parameters with smaller "t" values associated with salary were strike threat and number of steps on the salary schedule (PSEA, 1987a). That there is no significant difference between paycheck and district size in Pennsylvania, a commonwealth containing approximately 600 diverse school districts, intermediate units, vocational schools and other school entities, refutes the notion that smallness requires small school budgets.

Proponents of school consolidation tend to limit their economic analysis to a narrow range of issues, usually bounded by economic efficiency and scale. Monk and Haller describe this point of view in their report (Monk and Haller, 1986):

> Many residents forget that education is a state function, not a local one. New York State may not legitimately permit some of its citizens to receive an inferior education merely because they happen to live in rural areas. Nor may it permit other of its citizens to be unfairly burdened with high taxes for the same reason. If rural school districts unavoidably produce these effects, New York State is obligated to eliminate them.

Any focus on the community, the environment in which the school organization functions, is of a lower priority. Steve Kay, of the Community Research Center of Kentucky State University, agrees that consolidated schools are advantageous because they are able to offer a wider range of courses and extracurricular activities (Kay, 1982). On the other hand, Kay describes large-school stratification in which "a relatively small percentage of students participate in many offerings." The few students who dominate are satisfied; the great majority are not. Conversely, the staffs of larger, consolidated schools are more likely to include health counselors, disability experts, child psychologists and other specialists. Moreover, a larger school often offers a wider variety of extra-curricular activities than can a smaller school. The large-system staff can be assigned to areas of strength and specialization because the number of grade levels and subject areas they teach is typically reduced.

These scale problems have been addressed through current governmental interventions across several states. One of the debates concerns the higher proportion of unqualified, uncertified staff members in smaller school districts. In Minnesota, a statewide analysis by the largest newspaper, The Minnesota Star and Tribune, revealed that students in small Minnesota schools have significantly lower college-entrance scores than do those in larger public school systems. The study noted that one-third of Minnesota public high schools had 35 or fewer students in the junior class and, of 132 uncertified math teachers, 105 were employed in the smallest one-third of the state's public schools (Wehrwein, 1986). On the other hand, a study prepared for the Connecticut Association of School Administrators has found little difference in academic achievement, financial resources and per-student spending among the state's large and small school systems (Sevener, 1986).

Setting the foundation for Kay's study was Barker and Gump's BIG SCHOOL, SMALL SCHOOL (Barker & Gump, 1962, 1964). They professed that "per student participation, meaningfulness of participation, and participant satisfaction are all greater in smaller schools." Based on Barker and Gump's findings as well as his own work, Kay identified other issues to be considered in consolidation debates, including:

1. The magnitude of the change in distance between home and school under school consolidation proposals.
2. How the consolidation of rural schools will affect the social milieu (e.g. The loss of its school may promote a decline in community identity.).

The first of these, how far it is to school, provides the basis for estimating "diseconomies of scale." Chapter 9 of Barker and Gump's study, written by W. J. Campbell, describes a "matched threes" design in which students in small local, consolidated and large local schools kept diary records of daily activities (Barker and Gump, 1964). Among the findings (level of significance <.01) were:

	Small Local	Consolidated	Large Local
# of situations (activities...)	14.1	13.1	14.7
Time between home & school	40 min.	79 min.	27 min.

This suggests that when children who attend small local schools are rescheduled into larger, consolidated units, that one daily activity and 39 minutes are lost. A shadow wage can be assigned to the 39 minutes. Assuming a minimum wage rate, the yearly value of each student's time is approximately FOUR HUNDRED dollars. This represents a "sunk cost" which cannot be recovered nor is it likely to bring significant utility to the student. This result would be higher if large, local schools are consolidated. Assigning a value for the forgone activity is more elusive, but it is reasonable to assume students would prefer a situation of their own choice rather than a bus ride. Williams found that: "Students in the small, local group reported significantly greater participation than did those who were commuting ...." (p. 176) Consolidated students reported less time was available for total activities, leisurely excursions, hobbies, sports, entertainment, music, activities in their own neighborhoods, total situations, family and "alone." On the other hand, consolidation did not seem to affect home and school situations; time for meals, personal chores, talking, watching television, reading, dancing, listening to the radio; time with friends and family; time spent in one's house, yard, other houses, neighborhoods, or in school. Whether or not this 23-year old study of students in Eastern Kansas is generalizable to United States students in 1987 is an empirical question. The Barker and Gump study provides us with a psychological base, grounded with experimental validation of subjects worthy of further study.

At least one of Barker and Gump's findings can be retested using The High School and Beyond survey of 1980, which indicates that seven out of every ten teenagers are employed. Sophomore boys average 14.8 hours working each week; the average senior boys work 21.1 hours. The data for girls is 10.5 hours for sophomores and 17.8 hours for seniors (Greenberger and Steinberg, 1986). This is an increase in the student workforce of about 30%; thus the value of time lost in school transportation is even more significant to society as a whole in 1980 when compared to Barker and Gump's 1962 analysis. Within the context of student time:

> The average school day runs from eight in the morning until two or three in the afternoon. In order for a student to work twenty hours a week, he or she must have a work schedule that approximates the following: full-time employment on both weekend days, plus four additional hours on a school day or evening; or one full weekend day and an additional twelve hours distributed over two or more school days or evenings; or.... If the youngster also participates in a time-intensive extracurricular activity, practice may occupy many or all weekday afternoons...the student with a half-time job is a very busy person who commits, at the minimum, fifty hours to school and work; and if after-school activities are substantial, sixty hours or more. (pp 21-22)

Thus, the value of student time spent in transit to school as well as forgone pupil opportunities and sunk costs remain significant factors.

Roger Barker and William LeCompte also developed an index to measure the value of an individual's service to the community. Dubbed the "Pied Piper Index," it:

> ...is a measure of the community's loss of essential performances if the person in question were to be piped away, i.e. these are the performances which someone else would have to fill if the community were to maintain its level of functioning.

Barker and LeCompte computed the Pied Piper indices for all ages and for adolescents and found the adolescents performed 2.2 times as many responsible tasks than did the typical community member. High school adolescents had higher scores, ranging from 2.5 to 5 across various communities (Barker and Gump, 1962, Ch.11). This suggests that the functional value of an adolescent to a community exceeds, on the average, that of all other ages. This supports a hypothesis that a community which loses its school loses functional identity because school-related adolescent activities are generally removed from the municipal area to the consolidated school.

Organizations will always act so as to preserve themselves. Edwin Williams applies this to the context of activities in small schools (Barker and Gump, 1962, Ch. (8).

> Persons, as the crucial media of behavior settings, are subject to forces which bound and organize the settings, and also act as agents of forces on other persons. When the manpower of a setting diminishes relative to its requirements, ... (maintenance of the setting suggests that there will be):
>
> More opportunities for persons who remain.
> More jobs per person.
> More pressure to participate.
> Incompleteness which can be alleviated only by participation, e.g. lack of a quorum. (p. 131)

Using these as hypotheses, Williams found that students in small schools felt more "own" or personal motivation to participate, felt more obligations and responsibility to others, more day-by-day attration to activities and more external pressures to participate. On the other hand, large-school students felt a higher proportion of pressures to participate in, and less internal attraction towards school activities.

Kay, Barker and Gump all make a strong case that good schools have guideposts other than economic efficiency. By effectively changing the rules used by economists to measure good school organizations, they and others effectively dilute the influence of economies of scale on school district consolidation.

The effeciency and effectiveness of large schools were assumed, a priori, by educators in the 1950's (Hobbs, 1981). Monk and Haller (Monk and Haller, 1986) refer to these a priori knowledge as "Folklore," ideas commonly:

> ...assumed to be correct without critical examination ... a mixture of truth and wishful thinking. It makes a good story. It is the kind of thing we tell our children - tales about the good (or bad) old days in little country schools. Folklore is a poor basis for State policy, however. (pp. 9-10)

Do post-priori data show that school consolidation assures greater internal efficiency? To what extent will large school instruction promote an increase in student achievement beyond what is predicted by family SES? Herbert Walberg and William Fowler (Walberg and Fowler, 1987) regressed the mean scores obtained from third, sixth and ninth grade standardized testing in New Jersey school districts against SES, expenditures and enrollments. Family SES was found to be a good predictive variable; on the other hand, expenditure level did not. Surprisingly, a consistent trend was discovered. Larger school districts produced lower test scores and, conversely, smaller school districts achieved higher scores (controlling for SES as well as expenditures). The implication for educational policy is that the practice of school district consolidation may no longer be an appropriate strategy to increase achievement on standard test scores. If this finding is generally valid, then internal efficiency is less likely to be touted as a function of the economies of scale by the proponents of school mergers, consolidations or reorganizations.

Do the economic and curricular successes of past school consolidations indicate that the strategy remains appropriate as we approach the 1990's. Stuart A. Rosenfeld, Director of Research and Programs for the Southern Growth Policies Board in Research Triangle Park, North Carolina (Rosenfeld, 1987) suggests that the 1987 educational environment, compared to the landscape in which previous school mergers took place, is vastly different in four ways.

Rosenfeld proposes that while "the tiny school with 20 in the graduating class still exists ..." it is nearly "as rare an artifact of America as the bald eagle." Most "small" schools of today are large by previous standards. Second, scientific management, e.g. the division of labor, a administrative theory supportive of school consolidation, is becoming "passe" as a management philosophy. Rosenfeld notes to the contrary that business is both reorganizing into smaller units as well as reducing layers of supervision. Third, educators are no longer promoting the wider range of course offerings as was the case with Conant's recommendations. And last, Rosenfeld believes most schools are large enough that "further consolidation is likely to produce negligible savings ... and ... could very well increase costs."

Describing the conditions of rural America in the 1950's and 1960's, Daryl Hobbs suggests that the economic factors facilitating previous rural school consolidation do not exist in the 1980's (Hobbs, 1981). The populations as well as the economic bases of agriculturally based rural communities were in decline. Cheap energy afforded inexpensive transportation to distant schools. Consequently, the benefits of improved, efficient services were perceived to exceed anticipated costs. Hobbs notes that this economic assumption was so deeply woven into school consolidation theory that little noteworthy research was ever conducted in the 1950's to identify actual costs! Similarly, the cost to communities of forgone school benefits were "not generally documented either." Today, transportation costs demand a much larger share of school budgets. The economic base of many rural communities has stabilized or increased. Notions of size and efficiency no longer support, a priori, consolidation but, rather, become empirical questions. That the economies of scale are more subject to the diseconomies of transportation in the 1980's is yet another example of how pro-consolidation parameters of the 1950's and 1960's have changed. Consequently, these are fewer causal or persuasive factors driving school consolidation in the 1980's.

An analysis by Jonathon Sher and Rachel Tompkins of rural school consolidation myths (Sher and Tompkins, 1977) revealed that the diseconomies of scale are often underestimated or, worse yet, not considered in planning for consolidation :

> However, the primary problem with the consolidators research...is that it consistently fails to acknowledge the presence of diseconomies of scale, i.e., new or enlarged costs attributable to (the) increased size of operations.

Sher and Tompkins propose that such diseconomies include transportation costs and related capital expenditures, salaries and operating costs. For example, when local pupil transportation costs were added to the Oklahoma demographic and curricular data, the previously estimated optimal school district size of 800 students fell to 675 students. The significance of this change, resulting from the simple addition of transportation costs to a complex model of size efficiency, is attenuated when other variables are considered as well. Sher and Tompkins summarize:

> The point is not that the economies of scale are non-existent..., but rather that they must be considered in conjunction with existing diseconomies...the illusion of economy...can only remain by ignoring several critical factors.

Do economic models of school consolidation exist? Do they include all independent variables having a significant effect on total cost? In modeling rural school consolidation Holland, Baritelle and White created total cost functions dependent upon:

1. transportation costs,
2. shifts in the cost function as a result of consolidation, and
3. schooling costs.

They found minimal cost savings when their model redefined school boundaries while holding size constant. Whenever the school size was allowed to fluctuate, the internal economies of larger schools only slightly offset the increased transportation costs. The authors suggest that other community factors should be considered (e.g. pride and viability) in light of these small cost savings (Holland, Baritelle and White, 1976).

DEMOGRAPHICS AND THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ON SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION

The movement toward consolidating American schools didn't just happen overnight. It was spawned by urbanization at the end of the 19th Century (DeYoung, 1987) and encouraged by the "wagon," i.e., the school bus (Rapeer, 1920). It was the "wagon" which brought good roads to Minnesota, not vice-versa. Consider this quote from the Minnesota Commissioner of Rural Schools (in Rapeer's text):

> Nothing stiumlates good road-building like the necessity for road travel. Consolidation (of schools) has fairly

> intoxicated communities with a zeal for road-building.... In a word, poor roads can be made into good roads with promptitude where transportation of children is in vogue. (p. 215)

In each of these examples, schools were not consolidated for sound education or for school economies. Rather, schools were meshed together as a result of independent activity in the external environment. Still, there was some attempt to sell the public on the concept. Rapeer's promotion of the "wagon" had great promises for student discipline:

> Children carried in wagons have no opportunity of fighting nor hearing bad language on the way to and from school. One of the greatest (without consolidation) difficulties ... is the behavior of children (walking unsupervised) on the way to school and home. (p. 246)

In 1956, the American Association of School Administrators appointed a Commission on School District Reorganization, whose purpose was to observe school organization "at work" and to report model findings to the Association. Their 319-page report was published in 1958 (Beem, 1958). Among their findings were five scenarios for school reorganization:

> 1. Merger of the central city and the outside area into a single administrative unit for schools, possibly for other functions also.
>
> 2. Annexation by the central city of adjacent territory-an extension of municipal boundaries.
>
> 3. Reorganization of school districts in suburbs completely outside of and excluding the central city.
>
> 4. Extending the city school district to include outside territory without a comparable extension of municipal boundaries.
>
> 5. A combination of the above approaches-determined by regional planning. (p. 281)

Many of these involve school reorganization outside of the school organization's control, which supports a hypothesis of environment driving school rather than vice-versa.

The leading demographic investigated relative to school closings has been the decline in the numbers of students and, if all else is equal, the loss in enrollement. Lloyd Bishop of New York University projected a need for school mergers as a result of enrollments declining in the 1970's (Bishop, 1979): "The headaches of new construction of the last decade have been replaced with the difficulties of disposing of excess school facilities (Page 285)."

The nation's birthrate bottomed out in November 1973, with that year's live births slightly under 3.2 million, more than one million less than the peak birthrate of 1960. This decline in birthrate caught planners by surprise. The Arlington Heights Illinois High School District projected growth rates would peak at 25,000 students. Rather, enrollments began to decline after reaching 17,000 (Bishop, 1979). In describing external influences on the accuracy of data used in student enrollment projections, Bishop included the following demographic factors:

> ...residential housing patterns, rising property values, local building costs, the shift from first- to second-generation housing, commercial development, in and out migration, non-public school patterns, undeveloped land use, zoning requirements, multi-unit housing development, past population trends, local school-community, fertility and birth rates and ... (in New York State the)...abortion rate. (p.288)

One demographic which has escaped serious attention in the large versus small school studies is the flight of executives from the industrialized Northeast to the South, i.e. from the rustbelt to the sunbelt. Why may this be important? Hundrends of Arkansas school districts were given their merger orders by the state, having failed to meet a June 1, 1987 deadline for school reform compliance. According to EDUCATION WEEK, a 1983 reform law requires districts to meet new standards in coursework offered, graduation requirements, class size, student personnel services, staff in-service, length of school and work year and library standards. Thirty-four of the 333 school districts have met these standards voluntarily; the others face the penalty of forced consolidation for failure to meet standards (Rosenfeld, 1987). What has prompted this aggresive reform in Arkansas? One theory deals with the desire of new families migrating from the rustbelt to the sunbelt and their related preference to have schools in Arkansas much like those in the North. Liberal, white-collar employees have made a political impact on population centers such as Little Rock. This subsequently generates Northern-style reform in the South (Green, 1987). The testing of this hypothesis will be the subject of another study.

In what other ways do demographics provide clues for future structural changes in rural and small schools? DeYoung's investigation into rural vocational school training suggests that consolidation for vocational needs is an ill-advised strategy. He observes that the mechanization of agriculture has caused many vocational agriculture skills to become obsolete. Furthermore, he suggests, the exportation of our country's industrial base decreases the nation's demand for a wide range of vocational skills. Accordingly, the rural economy of the United States cannot be strengthened through the infusion of new vocational-based schools offering the same mix of exit skills as do current Vo-Tech programs (DeYoung, 1987). Can we expect relief as a result of the politician's promise of reindustrialization? It's nonsense to even think of it says David Pearce Snyder, Demographer and Consultant (Snyder, 1985): "The revolution took place thirty years ago when the United States economic base shifted from an industrial to a service orientation." Snyder predicts that the growth areas will be 25-100 miles out from the big city. New targets will be set in place for the program planning of small, rural schools. "The role of public education is not clear," adds Snyder, because many organizations will be competing for the training funds. Consider the projected retraining and education pricetags:

Educating the baby boom, $8-10 billion.
Retrain middle-aged employees, $100-150 billion.
Retrain technologically displaced, $45-120 billion.
Retrain all present employees, $400-500 billion.

"Education will not get a monopoly on this business in a vacuum (Snyder, 1985)." Private schools, big business, employers and a host of unexpected others will all seek either a share of the training dollars or attempt to keep training costs in-house.

What other changes in public education have resulted from changes outside the public school organization? New York City is building smaller schools! A lack of sites for large buildings, coupled with the developing philosophy that "smaller is better" has caused this public school system to focus on building smaller units (Beckner, 1983).

Rather that act or react to changes in the external environment, the leadership of some school systems often "does nothing" in the face of change, e.g. declining enrollments. The real agenda is to reassign pupils over time, so that in small, incremental steps, a school building's utilization appears to be very inefficient (Cuban, 1979). "The school closes itself" as a board of education is moved along in an apparently irreversible path towards closing and consolidation (Nevin, 1985). Typical supportive information prepared by school superintendents in this position includes enrollment sizes, building capacity and fixed costs per pupil (Cuban, 1979).

Rural is a term attached to 2/3 of all school districts, 1/2 of all public schools and 1/3 of all practicing classroom teachers, according to a 1980 National Center for Educational Statistics repot (DeYoung, 1987). With this diversity, it is unlikely that a single generic demographic agenda can be drawn for all rural schools. This does not imply that attention to trends is foolish; rather, it calls attention to the individual importance of demographic changes to every rural school and school district.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The decision to merge or consolidate schools or school districts involves the synthesis of economic, curricular, demographic fiscal, political, and community factors. The costs and benefits take on different meanings, mixes and priorities for various individuals, as do the risks and shortcomings. Therefore, there can be no clear consensus in school merger and consolidation decisions.

Proxies of the effectiveness of a school, its leadership or a school-related organization seems to evade relationships to size, scale or several other variables. The question suffers from a lack of specification of independent and dependent variables in addition to diverse speculation on which independent variables should be included. This is to say we cannot agree on what job the school should perform; therefore, measuring how well the school completes its mission is not possible. Until (if ever) there is a clear agenda for all schools, cross-comparisons of effectiveness and school size will not produce the generalizable results required to inform educational decision-making. In light of this, no universal description has been found for the optimal size of a classroom, building or school district.

The number of public school districts in the United States has remained essentially constant since 1970, indicating that the proportion of school districts finding consolidation an advantageous option is diminishing. If it is true that many of the efficient mergers have already been selected, then the pool of non-merged school units has been left with fewer likely choices. Whether this will result in proportionately less successful mergers in the future is an empirical question. Monk and Haller suggest:

> ...district reorganization has largely run its course. Most of the remaining small districts are "hard cases" that, short of outright state mandate, will refuse to reorganize.

Financial incentives at both state and federal levels are apparently insufficient to drive the remaining school districts towards consolidation.

A summary of small school advantages and disadvantages can be found in the Appendix. This listing is not intended to be either absolute or complete but, rather, a device to encourage discussion. It was compiled using organizational topics found in Beckner's report for Phi Delta Kappa (Beckner, 1983).

Declining enrollents are perhaps only a leading edge of a new wave of demographic changes which will have sweeping effects on schools. A single model of effective responses by schools to their environment is not expected. Rather, it will become increasingly important for school organizations to monitor these changes and tailor their activities towards the most probable anticipations.

School site information is the data of choice to the educational researcher. As local information becomes available, the unit of analysis will shift from district to school building. This will further facilitate the ability to study small school and large school effects. Many would prefer investigations at the classroom level, rather than building level; among these are teachers seeking smaller class sizes.

The size of a school district is not a useful statistic for the prediction of teacher salaries or fringe benefits.

Today's small schools are large by yesterday's standards. Still, they share some problems with their historical counterparts. Among these are the need to assign teachers outside their area of specialty or licensed field and the increased number of different daily classroom preparations.

Students in small schools participate in a highly varied and more lengthly mix of school and community activities when compared to their large school counterparts. The small school student also tends to hold more responsible positions. Moreover, the loss of a local school is associated with a corresponding decrease in services provided to the community as well as a collective loss of identity.

Economies and diseconomies of scale need further specification and consideration. Among these are opportunity costs, sunk costs and forgone opportunities for students as well as communities.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

One cost which has eluded serious attention in the literature is wastage and repetition. In subsequent studies, I intend to review the impact of size or scale on dropout rates, grade repetition, and other "wastage" proxies. These data will be informative when other direct and indirect costs and benefits of school consolidations are considered.

The concepts of opportunity costs, sunk costs and forgone opportunities received a somewhat superficial treatment in this paper. In subsequent studies I intend to review the opportunity cost of maintaining a small school system, i.e. to what extent does targeting resources to a small, local school limit a community's allocations to recreation, community development and other investments? Does "going to the well" to save the community school detract from the likelihood that a social center for senior citizens can be financed? Does the transactional time spent by the community's leadership (formal and informal) on local schools place too costly a strain on the attention which could be directed to other community programs?

A related issue deals with the additional time burden (at least in the aggregate) students spend in school transportation process. Forgone opportunity time on the bus has been equated to forgone dollars, forgone homework, forgone football and band practice and other estimates of indirect transportation costs. These diseconomies of scale have not been reflected often in recent literature. I intend to search additional data in order to focus on this gap in the accepted costs of schooling. The counterparts to such diseconomies are a significant contributers to a concept which I will refer to as the "satisfaction of smallness."

Does shifting management personnel from the rustbelt to the sunbelt promote or accelerate curricular changes in school systems? Does the inability to meet these newfound demands for service encourage school consolidation? A pending investigation of these population shifts will make comparisons to efforts to merge school services. The question of interest is whether or not the Arkansas situation has been duplicated sufficiently to provide the basis for a general theory.

What other changes in the external environment, e.g demographics, will promote significant changes, distributed variously by size, to school buildings and districts?

Another interesting study might ask in which cities smaller schools are becoming the most economical option due to rising land acquisition costs and other diseconomies.

The intensity of the fundamentalist movement in influencing the role of the public school may differ between large and small as well as urban and rural settings. Is the charge of secular humanism as ubiquitous in large, urban schools as it is omnipresent in small, rural units?

How often is Cuban correct in his description of certain school superintendents who manipulate schools and school systems into consolidations by "doing nothing" overtly; simply directing incremental, covert long-range changes.

Cuban also noted that while the pupil enrollment in Arlington Virginia fell from 26,000 in 1968 to 17,000 in 1978, the proportion of ethnic-minority students doubled from 15% to 30%. What, if any effects do such changes in large cities have on small, rural schools?

Walberg and Fowler's regression analysis of standardized test scores against SES and district size can be repeated with data available in Pennsylvania. Attempts will be made to reduce the unit of analysis to the school building. The availability of accurate and appropriate data looks promising.

APPENDIX:
ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF SMALLER SCHOOLS, A SUMMARY

Parameter	Advantages	Disadvantages
Community Relationships and Control	Community Nucleus	More conservative, slow change
	Strong support of parents	Likely parochial, if isolated.
	Strong community support	Possible overbearing influence
	More parents involved	More homogeneous culture
	More local control	Tend to inferiority complex
Finance	More citizen support	Not inherently efficient
	Defray community rec cost	Local wealth varies, little diversity
	Close fiscal supervision	Small share of federal subsidies
		Less political influence on state
		Citizens older, less able to pay tax
		Citizens more conservative on taxes
Administration	Close and professional	Little, if any assistance
	More shared decisionmaking	Less experience and preparation
	More cooperative	Limited professional development
	Less bureaucracy	Close contact, if bad relations
	Records and reports simple	
Teachers	Larger sense of community	Attracting & keeping quality staff
	Variety of teacher roles	Lack of adequate new housing
	More respect for teachers	Isolated from professional colleagues
	Recruited from small town	Teaching outside specialty field
	Better parent rapport	Multiple demands on planning time
	More teaming/cooperation	Limited academic freedom
	Teacher/student ratios lower	
Students	Higher morale & pride	Less choice of teachers and courses
	Better conduct	Difficulties if transferring schools
	Less alienation	Some feeling of inferiority
	More individualization	Fewer specialized services
	Larger % in activities	Limited variety of course offerings
	Benefit from close ties	Limited variety of activities
	More involved participation	
	Wider individual involvement	
Curruculum and Instruction	Learner centered	Limited scope if mimic large schools
	More independent study	Limited in new technology
	Administrative flexibility	Lack of financial resources
		Inadequate programs for exceptionals
		Overemphasis on academics if low $

Note: There are no absolutes. If a teacher lectures to a small group of five consistently, the advantage of the small class diminishes.

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Changes in Attitudes and Perceptions of Students Participating in a Teacher Preparation Program For Rural Schools

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Running Head: Changes in Attitude

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Abstract

This paper focuses on data collected as part of an evaluation of an on-going rural special education personnel preparation grant being carried out at Oklahoma State University. Participants in the program work toward dual certification in elementary and special education with a focus on the needs of rural schools.

Participants were recruited as juniors who had expressed a strong desire to teach in rural schools in Oklahoma. Data were collected to evaluate change in participant attitudes and perceptions during the first two years of participation in the program. Data which are reported come from five instruments which were designed locally. The Rural School Inventory (RSI) focuses on the prospective teacher's attitudes toward working in a rural school and in a rural community. The Educational Practice Inventory (EPI) was derived from Reynolds, Birch, Grohs, Howsom, and Morsink (1980) ten Clusters of Capability. It measures the prospective teacher's perceptions of the importance of various teacher competencies, as well as perceptions of one's own capabilities with respect to nine of the ten Clusters. In addition, three semantic differential scales were developed which asked for perceptions of the typical child, the typical mildly retarded child, and the typical learning disabled.

Data were collected upon entry into the program at the beginning of the second year in the program and at the beginning of the third year in the program (Fall, 1987). Results indicate that students in the program are very positive in their attitudes about working in rural schools, but may hold unrealistically high estimates of their own competence in meeting the diverse needs of children.

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Changes in Attitudes and Perceptions of Students Participating in a Teacher Preparation Program for Rural Schools

For years, special educators in rural schools have faced unique and serious problems. Yet only recently have these problems come to national attention. Compared with urban and suburban areas, rural communities are poorer; Dale (1983), for example, has described the results of inequitable school financing which especially affects small rural school districts. Also, rural communities serve a greater percentage of handicapped children than do other communities (Helge, 1984). Thus greater poverty and special education needs combine to make the rural school system unique. Compounding this is the problem of topography: many rural school systems serve small populations spread out over large geographic areas. This creates great difficulties for the delivery of special services to remote schools, difficulties not faced by urban areas (Helge, 1984).

As the farm population of America shrinks, as rural communities continue to suffer from a depressed economy, rural school systems face still another problem: the difficulty of recruiting and retaining qualified school personnel(Helge, 1984; Kirmer, Lockwood, Hickler & Sweeney, 1984). Statistics show that some rural school districts regularly face a 50% turnover in staff each year (Helge, 1984); this is especially true among special educators.

Some writers (Helge, 1984) have hypothesized that one of the reasons that teacher turnover is high in rural settings is that many beginning teachers have not been previously exposed to rural life. Because of this lack of exposure they face culture shock during their first years in rural schools. Another reason for early contract termination may be the heterogeneous nature of the student population, which includes special education students or unlabeled students with learning difficulties who are mainstreamed into the regular classroom.

To attack the twin problems of recruitment and retention, as well as to better prepare new teachers for the realities of rural living, a few universities have developed special teacher training programs focusing on rural teaching. Among these are programs at the University of Nebraska at Lincoln (Sesow, 1983), the University of Alaska (Parrett, 1985), Brigham Young University (Campbell, 1986) and Oklahoma State University (OSU) (Bull, Warner & Cheek, 1985). These programs focus on a variety of strategies for integrating the beginning teacher into the rural school environment.

Traditionally at OSU there have been two separate undergraduate teacher education programs which focus on elementary school teaching: an elementary education program and a special education program. The latter program leads to certification in mental retardation (N-12). During the 1985-86 academic year, a third program was initiated. This new program, supported by a grant from Office of Special Educataion and Rehabilitation Services (OSIRS), allows students to pursue coursework in both special education and elementary education. During their junior and senior years, students in this program take coursework from both the elementary education program and from the special education program. They also participate in observation/ participation in rural schools. These experiences take place both in regular education settings and in special education settings. At the end of their undergraduate program the students complete a student teaching semester which is divided into two segments: a six week experience in an elementary classroom and a six week experience in a classroom for the retarded. Again, all of these experiences are in rural schools.

At the end of their senior year in college (after completing 126 undergraduate hours) the students receive bachelor's degrees in elementary education. However, they are not yet eligible for standard certification in any area. Upon completion of a "fifth" year of graduate coursework (which includes about 29 hours of coursework in curriculum and instruction, mental retardation, and learning disabilities), students become eligible for standard certificates in three areas: Elementary Education (K-8), Mental Retardation (N-12), and Learning Disabilities (N-12).

In addition to combining coursework in special and elementary education, the grant-sponsored program differs from traditional teacher education programs at OSU in that an integrative seminar experience is included in each semester's program. The seminars meet every other week during the two semesters of the junior year, and during the first semester of the senior year. The seminars are designed to provide students in the program with an opportunity to integrate concepts from their coursework and their field experiences. Seminar discussions focus on such issues as the nature of teaching in rural schools and the relationship between regular and special education. A more complete description of the seminars is provided by Yellin & Warner (1987).

As part of the new elementary/special education program at OSU, an on-going evaluation of the project is being conducted. Included in the evaluation process has been the collection of data on the perceptions and attitudes of the program participants toward rural schools, toward children with special needs and toward their emerging capabilities as teachers. A description of these data follows.

Method

Subjects

The subjects in this study were juniors or seniors in teacher education at Oklahoma State University (OSU). The first cohort was composed of three males and seven females. The second cohort was composed of zero males and twelve females. The third was composed of fifteen females and zero males. All of these subjects were paid stipends by the OSIRS grant and were enrolled in the five year combined special education/elementary education program.

Data Collection

Three cohorts of students filled out questionnaires for this study. The year Group One were new students just recruited to the program. Data for this group were collected in the Fall of 1985 (first cohort), Fall of 1986 (second cohort) and Fall of 1987 (third cohort). The year Group Two data were collected from students at the beginning of their second year in the program: Fall of 1986 for the first cohort and Fall of 1987 for the second cohort. The year Group Three data were collected from students at the beginning of their third year in the program, Fall of 1987 for the first cohort.

Instrumentation

Of the several instruments which were developed and used in the program, five are discussed in this article: The Rural Schools Inventory (RSI); The Educational Practice Inventory (EPI) and The Semantic Differentials for Normal Child, Typical Mildly Retarded Child and Typical Learning Disabled Child. The RSI is a 15-item, Likert-like scale. The original item pool was intuitively generated and was limited in number to reduce data collection time. Data were collected from all three groups described above and pooled (with a larger sample of undergraduate teacher education majors). A factor analysis (principal components with a varimax rotation) (SPSS-X, 1983) was performed and four factors were generated. These factors were labeled:

Factor 1 - "Dislike Rural". Example item: "I do not like the idea of working in a rural school."

Factor 2 - "Understanding Rural". Example item: "I understand the kinds of material and resources that will be available to me in a rural school setting."

Factor 3 - "Desire for Unfettered Social Relationships". Example item: "I would like to be able to date without interference by the school that I work for."

Factor 4 - "Challenge in Rural Settings". Example item: "Working in a rural school will provide a positive challenge for me."

These factor labels were generated by inspecting the items and choosing descriptors which were representative of the item sets.

The EPI (Bull & Land, 1983) was used to measure student perceptions regarding teacher competencies derived from Reynolds' et.al. (1980) ten clusters of capability. To develop the EPI, Bull and Land (1983) generated sets of 10-15 items each which represent the Reynolds, et.al. (1980), clusters. They administered these items to a large number of students and then factor analyzed the results, using a principle components analysis with an equimax rotation to yield factors for nine of the ten originally hypothesized clusters. Items with loadings smaller than .4 were excluded to reduce the length of the instrument to its present 47 item length. Factors of the EPI dealt with competencies in individualizing curriculum and assessment, classroom management, counseling, dealing with exceptional learners, referral processes, affective education, basic literacy and life skills, etc.

In the present study, students responded to each competency statement twice, once under the heading, "Teachers should be able to," and once under the heading "I am able to." Each competency statement was rated twice on a 5-point Likert-like scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Two scales were derived corresponding to each heading: an IDEAL scale and a SELF scale. Each scale represented an aggregation of factors to define competency as a teacher. The reliability (coefficient alpha) for the IDEAL scale was r=.96 and for the SELF scale was r=.97.

The TCF scale asks the students to rate the typical child on a semantic differential scale containing 26 bipolar pairs. The LDF scale asks the students to rate the typical learning disabled child and the MRF scale asks the students to rate the typical MR child on a 26 choice bipolar item scale. The sets of bipolars were the same across all three scales, e.g. friendly/unfriendly, sociable/unsociable behavior. Each scale was factor analyzed (alpha image with an equimax rotation) and a single factor was extracted which represented the groups as labeled (again the three groups involved in this study were pooled with a large group of undergraduate elementary and special education students for this analysis).

Results and Discussion

The results described below are not the outcome of a controlled study. Rather they are obtained from a formative evaluation of the elementary/special education program at OSU. The data are being used to evaluate the implementation of that program and to suggest possible refinements in the program.

No formal statistical hypotheses were tested due to the lack of control of subject selection and assignment to treatments. Also, sample sizes for the groups studied were small. Means and standard errors of means are presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 About Here

An examination of the data regarding the view of normal, LD and MR children indicates that perceptions across time are remarkably stable. Students who have had little exposure to handicapped students, at least those in special education, seem to know how they feel about their clients. After numerous field/observation experiences these perceptions do not seem to change.

With regard to the means associated with rural factor 1, a consistent pattern emerged. All groups were moving clearly in a direction indicating a positive attraction to working in a rural setting. This finding is encouraging because it suggests that the grant goal of initial recruitment of "rural oriented" students was met. New programs in teacher education designed to prepare teachers for rural schools should consider the backgrounds of their student recruits carefully. Preliminary findings from our research suggests that students already familiar with rural life are more likely to be realistic about their expectations and respond more positively to first assignments in small rural schools.

Means associated with the second rural factor tended to move from the midpoint toward an understanding of the diversity of rural settings which precludes generalization to all rural areas. All of the students participated in observation experiences in rural schools during their first year in the program. Early observation experiences (prior to student teaching) should be an important component of rural teacher training programs. In some cases this may be easier said than done since many universities are located in urban/suburban areas and thus finding suitable rural observation sites is difficult. However, as students come to realize the complexity of the rural environment and its multifaceted nature their understanding may lead them to say that they understand less of the generic rural, rural being so diverse depending on the locale.

For rural factor 3, the means of all the groups were very similar. In general the means hovered around a value of 2, indicating agreement with a desire for unfettered social relationships. This suggests that as our teacher education graduates enter rural settings and find the social environment overly stifling, these same students may become disenchanted, thus leading to higher teacher turnover. A serious personal factor affecting recruitment and retention in remote rural areas may be the social one. Social opportunities in small communities tend to be more limited than many students are used too. In a situation where everyone knows everyone else's business, casual relationships are discouraged. Teacher training programs can no longer ignore these issues. They must address these social considerations in their courses as well as emphasizing the positive aspects of life in rural America. Our students, having been exposed to rural environments, still want freedom to explore relationships without interference. This does not bode well for recruitment of young female teachers such as those in our sample for rural schools. It also suggests that rural schools should look to older teachers with established families for recruitment purposes.

Rural factor 4 was concerned with the degree to which working in a rural school was seen as challenging. An inspection of the means indicate that teaching in a rural area is seen as less challenging than working in other areas with which the students are less familiar.

Results from the Educational Practice Inventory IDEAL were as follows: means for all groups were very similar. In general, respondents agreed strongly with statements regarding various competencies that teachers should have and the longer they were in the program the more they agreed with the competencies of the Ideal teacher.

The results for the EPI Self followed a similar pattern to that of the EPI Ideal. The students longest in the program believe that they have the highest level of competence. However, it may be that the students closest to their final supervised experience are overconfident in terms of their perceived abilities. If this is true some of these students will experience teacher shock in their first classroom and may contribute to the 50% dropout rate alluded to by Helge (1984).

Conclusion

Students in our sample are not adverse to working in rural areas. Furthermore, they feel that they understand what it is like to be in rural areas. This is understandable as many come from rural areas and have observational experiences in rural areas. Given this, however, they still want to have opportunities to meet and interact socially without the usual constraints of small town living. If this is true for the preservice teachers with rural exposure, it is probably also true for more urban oriented females (a significant proportion of our sample of elementary education/special education majors). This leads us to believe that one possible solution to the retention problem is not more rural exposure but recruitment of teachers with ties in rural communities.

The program presently constituted selects students with stable views of the client population which are maintained over time. They are developing attitudes and abilities that are congruent with the Reynolds, et.al. (1980), clusters model as should be expected in a program which supports the development of these skills.

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Table 1

Means & Standard Deviations of Comparative Evaluation Data'

	N	SEM	X	Sx	Range
TCF					
Year 1*	37	.110	2.865	.668	2.700
Year 2**	22	.118	2.800	.553	2.100
Year 3	10	.187	2.740	.593	2.100
LDF					
Year 1	37	.121	2.628	.735	3.000
Year 2	22	.150	2.328	.705	2.667
Year 3	10	.276	2.494	.873	2.556
MRF					
Year 1	37	.092	2.816	.559	2.273
Year 2	22	.115	2.719	.540	2.545
Year 3	10	.166	2.709	.526	1.636
Rural Factor 1					
Year 1	37	.073	3.210	.444	1.50
Year 2	22	.090	3.364	.423	1.333
Year 3	10	.094	3.183	.299	.833
Rural Factor 2					
Year 1	37	.077	2.459	.466	2.250
Year 2	22	.111	2.102	.521	2.000
Year 3	10	.128	1.950	.405	1.250
Rural Factor 3					
Year 1	37	.075	2.347	.454	2.000
Year 2	21	.101	2.048	.463	1.667
Year 3	10	.222	2.333	.703	2.333

Table 1 (cont.)

Rural Factor 4					
Year 1	37	.062	3.392	.375	1.000
Year 2	22	.095	3.341	.447	1.500
Year 3	10	.145	3.400	.459	1.000
EPI Ideal					
Year 1	37	.064	1.814	.390	1.660
Year 2	22	.081	1.576	.300	1.191
Year 3	10	.130	1.473	.412	1.106
EPI Self					
Year 1	35	.071	2.472	.421	1.567
Year 2	22	.080	2.258	.376	1.509
Year 3	10	.101	1.953	.320	.936

* Year one data contains three cohorts and was collected when each cohort entered the program.

** Year two data contains two cohorts and was collected at the beginning of the second year that each cohort experienced.

' = Responses are on a five point, Likert-like scale.

COLLABORATIVE STAFF DEVELOPMENT FOR RURAL SCHOOLS:

MAXIMIZING THE OUTCOME VARIABLES

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This paper describes the development of a collaborative effort at educational improvement between ten small/rural schools in the Southeastern portion of Washington state. In addition to a brief historical description, the focus of the paper rests on the efforts of these school districts to create and implement a teacher inservice and staff development model attuned to the needs and characteristics of teachers in small/rural schools.

Early in the developmental process, the ten schools who joined to form the Blue Mountain Small Schools Consortium (BMSSC) formulated a set of goal statements. These are:

1. Collect and analyze factual data and distribute results.
2. Develop in-service and curriculum delivery systems.
3. Continue to seek ways to share with and support BMSSC.
4. Become better able to evaluate legislative proposals' impact on BMSSC.
5. Continue monthly meetings.
6. Develop a functioning network
7. Continue developing community and general public relations.

As the BMSSC further developed it structure and clarified its goals, the potential benefits of cooperation in the area of inservice/staff development became evident. This appeared to be the area where the consortium could cooperate to directly improve the quality of instruction in member schools. The decision to emphasize development of a model for inservice/staff development delivery was a recognition of the special needs of educators in small/rural schools.

Small school districts, and particularly small/rural districts, have historically faced unique and critical problems in providing effective staff development activities for their teachers. In an era where educational decisions are increasingly made by outside agencies, such as legislatures and state departments of education, staff development is of increasing importance. Some identified barriers affecting inservice/staff development activities in small/rural schools include the following:

1. Small /rural K-12 school districts which enroll under 300 students often have a single person teaching an entire department (i.e. science, math, English, etc.). On-site inservice and staff development activities provided by an external agency are almost impossible because of the limited numbers and diversity of teaching assignments of such a small staff.

2. Geographic isolation restricts and limits the opportunities for professional development of educators in small/rural schools. Proximity to a college or university can help to offset some of the problems noted above; alternately, distance can exacerbate them. And isolation can be both geographic and psychological. Isolation has a psychological impact resulting in an insular attitude with little or no pressure for change. Small faculty numbers can produce a form of professional isolation. For junior high and secondary teachers in small schools, this can mean that a teacher will

probably not even have a colleague in his/her discipline with whom to share ideas and discuss problems.

3. A relatively stable, tenured, and established community of teachers who react differently to inservice/staff development activities than do newly hired teachers. New teachers operate under external pressures to qualify for the next certificate, and internal pressures to reach higher on the salary schedule. For them, inservice and staff development is a given, rather than an option. The experienced teacher, free from these external constraints, views coursework from a totally different perspective.

Experienced teachers often find it difficult and unrewarding to attend college or university classes, whether offered during the academic year or in summer programs. Travel time is a major deterrent to rural teachers who are geographically distant from campus. Summer school normally requires moving to campus with all of the accompanying disruptions of family life and increased expense. And for experienced teachers, a factor of cost/benefit must also be considered. Tuition increases have made even state supported institutions very expensive to attend, while private college and university costs can be prohibitive. Coupled with the travel and cost concerns are questions about the functionality of regular academic classes. A teacher who has taught a physics or chemistry class for a number of years may not receive maximum benefit from a standard college science course. He/she needs a problems in teaching physics course, structured to both update their content knowledge and provide ideas which are usable in the classroom. Staff development programs tailored to the needs of their consumers, developed through the collaborative efforts of school districts, can speak directly to these problems and concerns.

4. In many rural communities the school provides a focus for the community and community members may be reluctant to actively seek or advocate change. Where pressure for change is lacking, and expressed satisfaction remains high, teachers may become a part of this accepting environment.

While the factors discussed above are not limited to small and rural schools and their teachers, they do present a baseline of concerns which must be considered when planning a program of staff development for these schools. Any successful program will, of necessity, be planned and conducted with attention to these and other concerns of the teaching faculty.

Collaboration has many benefits for the cooperating districts. Formal coursework is more easily arranged because the number of teacher participants is increased. And, since districts face similar staff development needs, classes can be can be structured to meet specifically identified teacher needs and goals. Thus when a number of districts combine together, problems with numbers of participants and the isolation factor are greatly reduced. School district collaboration alone is not enough, however, to create a inservice/staff development program. Cooperation with an institution of higher education is required, where the college or university acts as the delivery system for requested courses or experiences. Such collaborative efforts are enhanced when an institution of higher education is directly involved in the entire inservice/staff development process.

When the BMSSC opened discussions with Whitman College, a private, four-year liberal arts college, the main question was whether Whitman could provide the types of services needed by the consortium at a cost level which would make the program not only feasible economically but also attractive to teachers. Initially, BMSSC and Whitman College adopted a two year pilot program, to test this question. The hope was that collaborative planning between school districts and a college would provide both formal and informal educational offerings which would attract teacher participation despite the problems listed above. These offerings could be tailored to the specific needs of the participants much more than regular college classes, or even standard summer school programs for teachers. Now completing the second year of the pilot project, it would appear that the model is functional, although continuing teacher participation remains a challenging issue. Two sets of summer courses for teachers have been completed, with sufficient success to indicate that further collaboration between the college and BMSSC should be pursued.

But, despite the successes which have been achieved, cooperation and collaboration between districts must be carefully planned and nurtured if it is to be successful. Financial arrangements are necessary for continued operation, which means not only a contribution from each district but also an arrangement whereby one district serves as fiscal agent for the consortium. In the BMSSC, which has both high school and non- high districts, K-12 schools contribute $2000 and K-6 schools $1000 towards operation of the consortium. This money is then available to fund classes and to pay an educational consultant. This pool of money is particularly important to the efforts to keep costs to teachers at a minimum. Outside sources of income are also very helpful in providing inservice/staff development activities to teachers at reasonable cost, thus overcoming the problems with cost/benefit ratios for teachers, as noted above. Additional funding has been received from foundation and state grants, written to support the summer program of courses for teachers. Cooperation by the college is also vital, expressed in a willingness to search for alternatives to traditional tuition and fee structures for academic credit. The pilot project between BMSSC and Whitman College has included this flixibility by the college, which is one vital ingredient in the success achieved by the summer courses.

Another problem in this collaborative effort is the amount of time involved in direction and coordination of joint efforts. The educational consultant assumes responsibility for the staff development and inservice planning and operation but there are still other responsibilities to be discharged. Given the other responsibilities of a superintendent, finding the time required for consortium business is a continuing problem. And, time spent in building and maintaining the consortium can be viewed by school board members and the public as time away from the job. A good public information campaign, designed to acquaint faculty, board members, and the public of the goals and achievements of the consortium is necessary for successful continuation of any collaborative effort.

A tradition of independence in small, rural districts is another kind of problem for a collaborative effort such as the BMSSC. To some school supporters, collaboration has too much of a connotation of consolidation for total comfort. Again, the need to continually inform local teachers and the local public of benefits achieved through collaboration is paramount. Independent action is the norm in small and rural districts, and their survival is predicated upon the success of such actions. Therefore, it can be difficult to build the team spirit required of an effective collaborative effort in one area, while independence remains vital to survival in other areas. But it remains imperative for each district in a collaboration to work through problems and/or differences in a spirit of cooperation and thus keep the cooperative venture in its proper focus and enable it to achieve maximum benefits to all members.

Enlisting teacher involvement and support of a collaborative effort seems to hinge upon the degree to which they can be made to feel that the program is "mine" as opposed to "theirs". In the BMSSC, teachers were involved in the planning of inservice and staff development activities early, directly, and continuously. A needs assessment of all faculty was conducted to provide base line data of teacher concerns and needs. Building on this base, an advisory committee was formed, composed of teachers from each school, and representatives of building administration. This committee functions to allow teachers direct input into the planning process and also as a conduit of information directly back to the schools. It would be difficult to overestimate the importance of such an advisory committee to successful staff development planning in any situation, but in the case of a consortium of separate districts, it is vital.

As noted, new teachers, whether beginners or just new to the system, face particular problems. One of the major responsibilities of an inservice/staff development program is that of helping teachers acquire the preparation they need to meet their teaching responsibilities. National concern has focused in recent years on the problems of teachers who lack preparation and certification for courses they teach. With small numbers of faculty, and a need to meet or exceed state mandated graduation requirements plus offer a range of elective courses to meet student needs, small schools are particulary concerned about this aspect of education. As state requirements for teaching in only certificated areas are implemented, the need for a tailored program of staff development becomes ever more critical. Within the limitations of a small consortium, specific programs for each and every teacher are not always possible, but if courses are structured to meet the greatest needs of the teaching corps, such classes can be effective in providing the knowledge and academic credits required for additional certificate endorsements.

The variables discussed above make it difficult, if not impossible, for a small and rural school district to meet the inservice/staff development needs of its teachers by itself. Other agencies such as an Educational Service District (ESD) are vital components in the process but are not able, by themselves, to provide all the needed services. If a district can not do it alone, then collaboration with other districts who share the same sorts of concerns would appear to be a viable alternative.

The collaborative model discussed in this paper, as formulated by member districts of the BMSSC, has achieved some notable successes in the area of inservice and staff development. The pilot project with Whitman College has demonstrated that summer courses for teachers, designed to meet specific needs, conducted locally, and at a reasonable cost, can attract teachers. In addition, projects have developed beyond the formal summer course offerings which offer the potential to favorably impact education in member schools. And, the ripple effect of such changes is moving beyond the consortium as teachers from other districts become involved in the summer courses. The necessary ingredient in such success is, however, the willingness and ability of small and rural school districts to work together to identify and solve their common problems. As with teachers, school districts must develop a collaborative program which is "ours" rather than "yours" if it is to have any chance to succeed. A commitment to the improvement of education, a willingness to cooperate, and a recognition of the problems and benefits of such cooperation are essential ingredients for a viable and effective collaborative effort. The model which has evolved from the efforts of member schools of the BMSSC is therefore of value in that it provides a blueprint for replication efforts. Whether or not their model develops along the lines of the BMSSC, small and rural districts should explore the potential of collaboration as a problem solving process for their schools.

Strategic Planning for Rural Vocational Education Delivery Systems

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PROPOSAL ABSTRACT

There is a growing dichotomy between rural and urban Arizona. That difference is especially evident in the states' schools. Student needs, administrative responsibilities, fiscal resources, etc., are often uniquely different in rural schools.

As part of a larger strategic planning effort, the Division of Vocational Education at the Arizona Department of Education, is in the process of analyzing the dichotomy and what can be done about it. A task force on Rural Delivery Systems in Vocational Education will begin its work in June and report on its recommendations no later than November 1. The task force is composed of educators, business and industry representatives and Department of Education staff. The work of the task force will be supported by a significant analysis of research pertaining to rural school administration, program alternatives, delivery methods, use of technology and rural resource needs.

We would like to share the results of our efforts at the National Rural and Small School Conference in October. We recognize that this effort is not completely consistent with your application process, however, we hope you can consider our participation in the conference.